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The Bulletin

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**THE NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF
SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS**

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The Role of the Public Junior College in Illinois

FOREWORD

THE junior college has become an integral part of the American school system. The people of the United States have an unbounded faith in the benefits both to the state and to the individual of more education for an increasing proportion of the youth of this nation. A broad system of education at public expense for all normal youth is a basic tenet in the American way of life. The junior college is designed to meet urgent educational needs and is rapidly developing as an upward extension of secondary education.

SIX CARDINAL PRINCIPLES

After a long and careful study of the junior college problem, members of the Committee are agreed on the six following cardinal principles. The validity of each of these principles will be established in the detailed discussions which follow.

1. There are urgent reasons, which cannot be evaded, for creating *now* an adequately supported system of local public junior colleges in Illinois.
2. The public junior college should be an upward extension of secondary education.
3. As the topmost unit of the secondary-school span, the public junior college

This report was prepared by the Junior-College Committee of the Curriculum Committee of the Illinois Secondary-School Principals' Association. Professor Harold C. Hand of the University of Illinois prepared, in form suitable for publication, the materials resulting from the work of the Committee. It appears as a 43-page bulletin published by the Bureau of Educational Research of the College of Education, University of Illinois, Urbana, Illinois. Professor Walter S. Monroe, Director of the Bureau, has graciously granted permission to the National Association of Secondary-School Principals to reprint this report. It is being reprinted for the purpose of providing information concerning the imperative need for junior colleges not only in the State of Illinois, but also through the nation and to acquaint members of boards of education, school administrators, teachers, and others interested in secondary education with the aims, functions, and nature of the junior college.

should serve *all* normal youth who wish to continue their formal education through grade fourteen.

4. In order to make it possible for all normal youth to attend, the public junior college must be a tuition-free institution.
5. In order to meet the educational needs of all normal youth, the program of the public junior college must be geared both to the common and to the specialized needs of youth. This means that there must be provided:
 - a. Commonly needed general education for all youth.
 - b. Vocational training in the semiprofessions for terminal students adequate to qualify them for effective immediate entrance into the occupational world.
 - c. College-preparatory courses for college-bound students adequate to qualify them for junior standing in standard colleges and universities.
 - d. Adequate guidance and other necessary personnel services for all youth.
6. The public junior college should be designed as a community institution; it should provide whatever adult education of less than university grade the public may desire and should serve as the principal cultural center of the community.

BACKGROUND INFORMATION

Every real-life problem has its setting—a situation compounded of its history, present status, and future prospects. To understand the problem—even to be “literate” in reference to it—obviously one must have at least a certain minimum of reliable information concerning its setting. This is abundantly true of the junior college. Consequently, this section has been prepared to afford the reader the minimum background information necessary for an intelligent understanding of the junior college question.

To begin with, the junior college is not a new and untried institution. On the contrary, the first junior college dates back to 1677 in Maryland, although the oldest one still in existence dates from 1851 in Massachusetts. These were private institutions. The first public junior colleges appeared in the 1890's, but the oldest one still in operation opened in 1902 in Joliet, Illinois.

The American junior college has experienced a phenomenal growth, especially since World War I. In 1920 there were 165 such institutions. Today there are about 650 junior colleges enrolling some 440,000 students. Thus there are nearly as many of these institutions as there are recognized four-year colleges and universities (668) in this country, and junior college enrollments are nearly one fourth as great as the combined number of full- and part-time students registered in all of America's recognized “regular” four-year institu-

tions. Slightly over 75 per cent of all junior college students are enrolled in publicly supported schools.

What forces have operated to create the junior college and to give it this almost explosive degree of growth? Historically, three major forces were operative. Principal among these, as President Angell of Yale pointed out in 1915, has been the fact of local pressures for post twelfth-grade education. What happened was that sizable numbers of boys and girls who had graduated from high school came back asking for more education, and the school authorities found it necessary to extend upward the span of secondary education to accommodate them. This is how the first public junior college in Joliet, Illinois, got started in 1902, as did a great many other such public institutions in the years that followed. In fact, by 1904 at least 24 cities had extended upward the span of secondary education to include six instead of four years.

Most of these young people were from families who could ill afford to send their children to colleges or vocational schools away from home. Those youth who were college-bound were thus able to reduce very sharply the expense of a four-year course, and greater numbers of poor but able students were thus enabled to secure their college education. Similarly, many who could not afford to pay their tuition and living costs at vocational schools located away from home were likewise enabled to secure the desired training, and with it a better start in life. Thus came into being three of the principal functions of the junior college; namely, the popularizing or democratizing function, the college-preparatory function, and the terminal education function. The successful discharge of these functions, born as they were of the practical needs of a great many young men and women, has been powerfully operative in giving us the large number of junior colleges and junior college students that we have today.

The other two historical forces which helped to create the junior college were both considerably less important than the fact of local pressures for an extension of the secondary-school span. Both of these forces came from, or were associated with, the four-year colleges and universities. One had to do with the fact that the first two years of regular college work are generally regarded as being secondary rather than higher education; this state of affairs is reflected in the fact that more than half of 101 public four-year institutions included in a 1940 study were found to have established separate lower (grades 13 and 14) and upper divisions. Therefore, and this was argued as early as 1852 by President Tappan of Michigan, why not admit that grades 13 and 14 are secondary in character and stop trying to offer both secondary and higher

education under the same administration? This argument was also advanced by several other very influential educators, among them President Folwell of Minnesota, President James of Illinois, President Jordan of Stanford, President Goodnow of Johns Hopkins, and, most notably, President Harper of Chicago, who coined the term "junior college."

As would be expected, this insistence from high quarters that grades 13 and 14 in fact constitute not higher but in reality secondary education stimulated the growth of junior colleges. It also led to the general acceptance of the now well-established point of view that the junior college constitutes the top-most unit in the secondary-school span.

The other historical force, which we noted but did not discuss in the second paragraph just above, was one which gave rise to "new" junior colleges (mostly private institutions) by a not altogether happy process. Many of the small private four-year colleges proved to be unable to retain their standing as four-year institutions and gave up their last two years of work to become junior colleges. To illustrate: Of a certain group of 203 colleges having an enrollment of 150 or more students in 1900, 14 per cent had become junior colleges by 1929 while 37 per cent had perished and 49 per cent still survived as four-year institutions.

So much for the numerical magnitude of the junior college enterprise and the principal forces which have made it what it is today. We turn now to a brief discussion of what is probably the chief deficiency of the junior college, especially in Illinois.

This weakness relates to what the junior college is doing to meet the needs of its *terminal* students (those who do not go on to the university) as contrasted with what it is doing for its *college-preparatory* students (those who do go on). Careful studies show that the college-preparatory group is quite well cared for and that, when these students transfer to upper-division work in four-year colleges and universities, they make records as good as those achieved by the universities' "native sons." But when it comes to caring for the needs of the terminal students much remains to be done.

A study reported in 1941 revealed that 75 per cent of all junior college students in the United States were terminal students, but that not over 34 per cent were enrolled in any terminal course which was designed to equip them to hold a job. The corresponding percentages for Illinois were found to be 71 and 17. In other words, over 50 per cent of the Illinois junior college students were found to be enrolled in curricula which did not meet their needs—espe-

cially their vocational needs. Too frequently, far too little in addition to the college-preparatory curriculum is offered, both in Illinois and elsewhere.

It should be noted, however, that many junior colleges have successfully demonstrated that terminal students can be prepared for effective and immediate entrance into the world of business and industry. These junior colleges have taken account of the widespread prevalence of those occupations which require two instead of four or more years of training beyond high school—occupations which are known as the “semiprofessions” and which offer five times as many jobs as do the professions. To train for these semiprofessions, junior colleges find it necessary to offer terminal vocational curricula in such fields as agriculture, business, engineering and technology, fine arts, health services, home economics, journalism, and public service. Terminal curricula of a general cultural or social intelligence type are also found to be necessary. The section of the country in which it is located has, of course, much to do in determining which among these various curricula the terminal students in any given junior college will need.

An additional consideration that should be included in this compilation of background information has to do with the future prospects of the junior college. Every indication points to a sharp increase both in the number of junior colleges (mostly public) and in junior college enrollments. After a careful consideration of the pertinent lines of evidence, one well-qualified authority wrote in October, 1946, that during the next decade the junior college would expand with almost explosive rapidity, that new junior colleges would open their doors in all sections of the country, and that junior college enrollments would multiply. That this prophecy is already coming true we shall demonstrate when we introduce certain factual evidence in the next section of this report.

WHY AN ADEQUATELY SUPPORTED STATE SYSTEM IS URGENTLY NEEDED

There are at least six lines of evidence pointing to the need for creating a state system of adequately supported local public junior colleges in Illinois *now*. These lines of evidence derive from the imminent sharp increase in the number of war veterans who will attempt to secure education of above-high-school grade, certain moral commitments by which the University of Illinois is bound, the increased birth rate since 1940, the continuing increase in the number of youth who are graduated from high school, the growing proportion of high-school graduates who seek training of a higher grade, and the present inadequate provisions for public junior colleges in Illinois. Each of these will be briefly discussed in turn.

Authorities in a position to make reliable estimates confidently predict that the present vast enrollment of war veterans (more than 1,100,000) in junior colleges and standard four-year institutions will increase over 50 per cent by September of 1949. From past experience, it is certain that institutions in Illinois will be confronted with at least the state's proportionate share of this imminent increase.

This virtual certainty alone makes it imperative that a state system of adequately supported local public junior colleges be erected in Illinois. The reason is painfully simple—there will be no other place for the majority of this vast new throng to go. With no important exceptions, the physical and other facilities of every Illinois educational institution of above-high-school grade have already been taxed to the utmost by the 124,000 full-time students now in attendance. These institutions simply cannot absorb more than a small fraction of the predicted increase in war veterans. Nor can sufficient relief be found in other states, for everywhere in the United States the universities, professional and technical schools, liberal arts colleges, teachers colleges, and junior colleges are already overloaded. The only adequate answer in Illinois, and elsewhere for that matter, lies in the rapid establishment of a more adequate state system of local public junior colleges. And the time is now—in 1949.

What would happen to this predicted rate of increase (50 per cent) should a serious economic recession or depression develop, one hesitates to estimate. But that this percentage could virtually double seems altogether likely in the future.

We turn now to a second source of added pressure, in this instance primarily upon the University of Illinois. Unable to meet the demands being made upon it by would-be freshmen in the summer and fall of 1946, the University worked out a co-operative arrangement with 30 high schools of the state whereby these schools would in 1946-1947 offer a year of approved work of university grade. Slightly more than 3000 students were enrolled (first semester 1946-1947) in these 30 centers who had a moral claim upon the University which it certainly felt obligated to assume when these youth sought to transfer to the Champaign-Urbana campus as sophomores in the fall of 1947.

These youth could be at least equally well served were adequately supported local public junior colleges provided in sufficient numbers to care for their educational needs in grade fourteen. Obviously, the state must bear a very substantial portion of the financial burden if this is to be effected.

To the degree that this relief is not provided, the University (which plans to stabilize at some 26,000 students—*i.e.*, at virtually its *present* enrollment) will be obliged to deny admission to some proportionate number of other applicants—many of whom will be the high-school graduates of 1949. To meet their educational needs, a state system of local public junior colleges will have to be provided.

Still another source of pressure upon the University will shortly (in the fall of 1949 and thereafter) become operative. And again it involves a moral commitment upon the part of the University. In the fall of 1946, two-year centers were established by the University of Illinois in Chicago and Galesburg. These centers now enroll about 5500 students, but this number is expected to increase by at least another 1000 or 1500. In the fall of 1949—and every September thereafter as long as these centers are operated—a very substantial proportion of these 6500 or more students will be entitled to matriculate at the Champaign-Urbana unit. And, again, some proportionate number of other would-be entrants will have to be denied admission—many of whom will inevitably be recent high-school graduates. Once more, an adequate state system of local public junior colleges is urgently indicated.

We turn now to a brief consideration of three longer-range pressure factors. First, we shall note the fact of the increased birth rate, which since 1940 has already added to the population of the United States some 5,000,000 children over and above the number earlier predicted. Of these added new arrivals, Illinois has approximately her fair share. Already, the forefront of this "wave" has reached the lower elementary school. In many communities first- and second-grade populations have already been increased by 10 per cent or more, though the crest of the "wave" is still to come. By about the time that the eligibility of most war veterans for educational benefits under Public Law 346 is expiring, American high schools will be turning out the largest graduating classes of all time. Very sizable proportions of these graduates (probably from 50 to 55 per cent instead of the present 30 to 35 per cent) will be desirous of securing two, four, or more years of added training for vocational and other purposes. Unless the institutions of above-high-school grade in Illinois, and most importantly—since it is by far the largest—the University of Illinois, can expand their presently over-extended facilities to a very considerable degree, only a minority of these future would-be freshmen will be able to matriculate. As we have previously noted, the University of Illinois plans to stabilize at approximately its present swollen strength. It is also likely that but relatively little expansion over their present enrollments (all seriously swol-

len) will be possible on the part of the other standard four-year institutions in the state. The requisite relief can conceivably be had only through the extension of a system of local public junior colleges which would adequately blanket every region of Illinois.

This brings us to the second of the three longer-range pressure factors. In response to the needs of society for better-trained citizens and workers, the increasing ambitions of American parents for their children, and other social forces which can be expected to continue to operate, the proportion of youth who complete high school has risen very sharply in the past 35-40 years. In 1910, only 93 out of every 1000 persons in the United States had a high-school diploma. By 1938, this figure had risen to 450 out of every 1000. This was an increase of more than 380 per cent.

There is good reason to believe that this upward trend will continue, and perhaps even be accelerated—for our economic, political, and social world is becoming ever more complex, and the ambitions of parents for their children are certainly on the increase—ask any war veteran who is a parent! In regard to what is in the cards in this respect, the president of a midwestern state university recently predicted that in a decade or so we shall be enrolling in our high schools at least 90 per cent instead of about 70 per cent (the present figure) of the youth of appropriate age and holding until graduation some 80 per cent instead of the present 50 per cent of all who enter. Completely *excluding* the added new arrivals yielded by the increased birth rate, this would add about 1,400,000 to our present high-school population and would increase by about 60 per cent the present number in the graduating class. This, of course, means that the present demands from would-be new students for places in Illinois educational institutions of above-high-school grade would numerically be increased by at least 60 per cent (see following paragraph for evidence indicating that this would appreciably exceed 60 per cent). That the president's prediction is probably on the conservative side is attested by the fact that in three states 90 per cent or more of all youth aged 14-17 are *now* enrolled in high school. Again, the evidence of this paragraph makes imperative the establishment of an adequate state system of local public junior colleges.

We come now to the last of the three long-range pressure factors which make necessary the establishment of an adequate system of local public junior colleges. This third type of pressure is created by the fact that larger and larger proportions of youth of college age continue their formal education in some institution of above-high-school grade. In 1910, only 67 out of every

1000 persons in the United States continued their full-time formal education beyond high-school graduation. By 1938, this figure had grown to 150 per 1000, an increase of about 124 per cent. This trend is powerfully operative today and can be expected to continue into the next decades. Since the Illinois institutions which offer work of above-high-school grade are, with no important exceptions, already at virtual maximum capacity, this third type of longer-range pressure alone would make necessary the marked extension of local public junior college facilities in this state.

Of particular significance is the fact that the operation of the first trend (increased birth rate) compounds the effects of the second (a sharply increased proportion of all youth aged 14-17 who go to high school), and the operation of this compounded second trend similarly compounds the effects of the third (a markedly increased proportion of all college-age youth continue their education beyond high school). What this multiple compounding of long-range trends adds up to is a flood of would-be matriculants which will completely swamp all present Illinois institutions of above-high-school-grade. The most economical and desirable resolution of this problem seems to the Committee to be the establishment of a state system of adequately supported local public junior colleges.

We come now to the last of the six lines of evidence mentioned in the opening paragraph of this section, namely, the present inadequate provisions for public junior colleges in Illinois.

In total income received, Illinois ranks *fourth from the top* among the 48 states. In proportionate number of youth of junior college age (18-20) in the total population, Illinois ranks *fifth from the bottom* among all the states. Illinois is thus able to afford as adequate a state system of local public colleges as virtually any state in the Union. In such a state, one could reasonably expect to find one of the highest general educational levels in the entire country. Regrettably, this is not the case. Actually, only 20 of the 48 states have a *lower* general educational level than does Illinois. Put the other way around, 27 states excel Illinois in this regard. Among these 27 states are Iowa, Indiana, Michigan, and Ohio in this area—all of which have proportionately *more* youth to educate and proportionately *less* wealth to tax.

In reference to general educational level, California leads the nation. It is the second, whereas Illinois is the fourth, wealthiest state. It has the second, whereas Illinois has the fifth, smallest proportionate (to total state population) number of youth aged 18-20. In California, 36.9 per cent of the total population aged 25 and above have completed four years of high school or above; the

corresponding figure for Illinois is 24.1 per cent. In other words, California's record is *50 per cent better* than that for Illinois.

No small part of this vast difference in general educational achievement is associated with the respective statuses of the local public junior colleges in these two states. California has a well-established, adequately supported state system of local public junior colleges which blanket all regions of the state and which are tuition-free. In 1944-1945, that commonwealth had 60 public junior colleges which enrolled some 118,000 students. In the same year, Illinois had but 12 public junior colleges enrolling but an approximate 7000 students. The City of Chicago, however, had 6 of the institutions and all except about 1000 of the public junior college students. Of the 12 Illinois institutions, all but three found it necessary to charge tuition—this because of the present completely inadequate provisions for state support.

Both states have private as well as public junior colleges. In California, scarcely more than two per cent of all junior college students attended private institutions in 1944-1945. In Illinois, over 26 per cent did so in that year.

Another way of noting the contrast between the degrees to which California and Illinois are meeting the educational needs of junior-college-age youth is to reflect upon the fact that, for every 10,000 persons in the total population, 125 and 25, respectively, were *just prior to World War II* attending some type of junior college. Since the needs of youth can not be presumed to differ to any appreciable degree in a quantitative sense in the two states, this comparison affords a reliable indication of the unmet need for junior college education which was resident in Illinois *prior* to the present postwar influx of students. In other words, had there been no war, no Public Law 346, and no increase in the birth rate, Illinois would have had to expand fivefold her junior college population to bring the commonwealth abreast of California. Since the evidence is quite conclusive that even California still had (and has) a very considerable distance to go in meeting the needs of her older youth, it is obvious that making adequate provision for the 18-20-year-olds of Illinois would have necessitated much more than even this fivefold increase in junior college enrollment, facilities, and financial support.

AN UPWARD EXTENSION OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

The work in grades thirteen and fourteen, whatever it may be called, is typically secondary in character in its purpose, content, organization, and method. True higher education has as its purposes specialization, professional preparation, and the advancement of pure research; and its content, organization, and method are in harmony with these purposes. These are *not* the purposes

which are typically operative in grades thirteen and fourteen. The chief emphasis in these years is typically on *general* education rather than on specialization, and on semiprofessional, preprofessional, or trade training instead of professional education. And virtually nowhere can one find—or expect to find—pure research being advanced by thirteenth- and fourteenth-grade students in any typical sense. Accordingly, the content, organization, and method typically employed in the work in these years differ both in kind and in degree from those ordinarily observed in the upper-division years and beyond.

Another fact which should emphatically be noted here is that offering the work of grades thirteen and fourteen in a standard four-year institution and calling it “college work” affects not one whit its essential character—this never has made it, and never can make it, “higher education.”

This fact, as we pointed out in an earlier section, has been recognized by leading university presidents for nearly 100 years. These men have again and again called attention to it and demonstrated that the traditional four-year institution (a historical accident, so far as America is concerned) thus attempts to serve two clear-cut purposes which can not be transmuted into a single all-inclusive goal which is internally self-consistent. Further, their experience as university administrators taught them that one or the other of these two purposes (those of general and of higher education) was certain to suffer when made the twin responsibilities of a single administration and that it was general education which was usually neglected in such situations.

That this is generally recognized to be the case is attested by the fact, already noted, that as many as half of our larger publicly supported four-year institutions were, in a recent study, found to have established separate lower and upper divisions, with the demarcation between the two administrative units falling between the fourteenth and the fifteenth grades. In these reorganized institutions, general education which is typically secondary in character is provided in the first two years under conditions freed as much as possible from the domination of the upper division.

But even this lower-upper division arrangement represents but a stopgap and too frequently a seriously inadequate solution to the problem. Principally, there are three lines of evidence which make this conclusion inescapable. *First*, the top institutional administration will too frequently impoverish the lower division by its allocation of funds—witness the impossibly overcrowded class sections typical at this level. Witness also the comparative training, experience, and professional standing of the instructors at the two levels. *Second*, when the same instructors teach at both levels they soon discover that it is (a) research

and publication rather than (b) good teaching in the best tradition of general education that results in promotions in rank and pay, and they channel their major efforts accordingly. *Third*, even if the lower division were accorded its rightful share of funds and staff time, most ranking professors would continue to regard it as "beneath them" to teach at the lower level—an attitude bound to create disaffection among the staff members so assigned. These two last-named factors were (and still are) so powerfully operative at one great west-coast university that its president for years advocated the establishment of a separately campused, separately staffed, and separately administered lower-division unit—in short, a separate junior college.

What this adds up to is obvious to any intelligent observer; namely, if the purposes of general—i.e., secondary—education are to be served and not subverted, the enterprise must be taught and administered by persons who believe in such purposes and who are both competent and willing to carry them out. This combination of competence and willingness is commonly found among secondary-school teachers and principals and but rarely encountered among college professors and deans. Grades thirteen and fourteen should be considered the province of the former and not of the latter. In sum, the junior college should be regarded as the topmost unit in the secondary-school span.

More than this, research findings demonstrate that the more closely grades thirteen and fourteen are integrated with the high-school grades, the better the educational results and the lower the financial cost. In a careful and extended study recently conducted by one of America's most outstanding students of the junior college, it was found that best results in both of the respects just noted were yielded by the four-year junior colleges (grades eleven, twelve, thirteen, and fourteen housed and administered in a single unit). He found that, in both respects, the separate two-year junior college (grades thirteen and fourteen separately housed and separately administered) came out in the number three position. Occupying a position about midway between the other two were the associated junior colleges (grades thirteen and fourteen housed with the high school and most completely under a separate administration in all respects). In view of these findings, it should not surprise the reader to learn that all members of the present committee favor the four-year junior college (6-4-4 plan) for most of the situations which they envisage within the state.

In conclusion, it is instructive to note that the authors of the *Report of the Commission to Survey Higher Educational Facilities in Illinois* (1945) urged that the junior college be "accepted as part of the basic school system" in this state.

SHOULD SERVE ALL NORMAL YOUTH WHO WISH TO CONTINUE THEIR FORMAL
EDUCATION THROUGH GRADE 14

At least six important considerations made it highly desirable that the public junior college be designed to meet the educational needs of *all* normal youth who wish to continue their formal education through grades fourteen, which in most cases would mean that provision should be made for all up to age twenty or twenty-one.

First, the American way of life is premised upon equality of educational opportunity. One has but to glance at any one of the several research studies bearing on the socio-economic or welfare level composition of the student bodies in standard four-year colleges and universities to note how very markedly the accident of birth in an economic sense determines who shall and who shall not continue his formal education in such institutions. What one sees here reflected is anything but equality of educational opportunity. Instead, what these data reveal is a situation which is shockingly antidemocratic; an aristocracy of economic privilege is being maintained, which leads to other consequences equally repugnant to the principles of democracy. Chief among these consequences are the creating of still greater economic, social, and cultural inequalities, the engendering of more seriously widened class distinctions, and the inducing of more rigid social stratification.

The evidence is clear that an extensive system of public junior colleges makes possible the education of more youth from the lower income levels. It is no accident that California has to her credit *both* the largest number of public junior colleges *and* a citizenry with the highest educational level of any state in the union. The democratization of education and the provisions of an adequate state system of public junior colleges are but the opposite sides of the same coin.

A second consideration which favors the establishment of public junior colleges to serve all normal youth derives from the fact that the age of entry into American occupations has risen steadily and, in the opinion of persons most competent to predict, promises shortly to reach and probably stabilize at age twenty or twenty-one. Apparently, the choice is between serving all youth in local public junior colleges or forcing them into distintegrating idleness with its consequent train of juvenile delinquency.

A third consideration relates to the increased and increasing complexity of virtually all aspects of modern life and the consequent need for more formal education. Universal education to age twenty or twenty-one is clearly indicated in this regard.

Another and closely related consideration is suggested when one recalls the findings of the United States Chamber of Commerce inquiry into the relationship between business profits and the educational level of the community. The fact, that this study everywhere revealed a high positive relationship between the two, argues powerfully on a cold dollars-and-cents basis that all normal youth should be educated through the junior college years.

A fifth consideration derives from the present appalling wastage of human resources in states inadequately served by local public junior colleges. In one of these states, it was found that for every 105 out of 1000 high-school graduates who successfully completed the first two years in standard four-year colleges, 174 out of a thousand who were of equal mental power did not continue their formal education until college graduation had been obtained. The loss to society thus entailed is truly prodigious.

The fact that increasing proportions of youth of junior college age desire to continue their formal education beyond grade twelve affords a sixth consideration of great importance. It may safely be presumed that if democracy successfully meets the reasonable expectations of youth for the good things of life—among which education is central because it is so largely causal—rival ideologies will have but little success. On the other hand, to deny their reasonable expectations of opportunities for vital and meaningful education is to invite dissatisfaction and unrest, and their consequent exploitation by exponents of undemocratic ideologies.

MUST BE A TUITION-FREE INSTITUTION

Given the facts of family income in the United States, there is no disputing the statement that the junior college *must* be a tuition-free institution if it is to enroll and hold any sizable proportion of youth from the lower income brackets—even of those who keenly desire to continue their full-time formal education.

This fact was clearly recognized by the authors of the *Report of the Commission to Survey Higher Educational Facilities in Illinois* (1945). In recommending that the public junior colleges of Illinois be tuition-free they wrote, "The imposition of a tuition charge interferes with the democratization of education in junior college years by excluding many youth of the lower socioeconomic levels of society."

The findings of research studies are highly illuminating on this point. Very markedly greater proportions of economically underprivileged youth attend the junior college when it is tuition-free than when a tuition charge is made. Most successful of all as a democratizing agency, these studies show, is the *locally provided* tuition-free public junior college.

SHOULD PROVIDE COMMONLY NEEDED GENERAL EDUCATION FOR ALL YOUTH

General education for all public junior college youth is an imperative both from the standpoint of the long-range need of the investing society and the commonly experienced life-needs of the junior college youths themselves.

From the long-range point of view of society there are certain social processes which must effectively be carried forward—these can be neglected only at the certain cost of societal retrogression and decay. These vitally essential processes have to do with keeping the population healthy and vigorous and safeguarding it against accidents and disease; providing physical security and guaranteeing the peace; developing, wisely utilizing, and conserving natural resources; enabling the population to make a living; rearing and educating the young; enabling the population to satisfy its aesthetic and spiritual impulses; providing for adequate recreation; providing a common body of beliefs and aspirations to assure societal integration; and governing the population in consonance with its commonly held beliefs and aspirations.

Since America can maintain itself only as these processes are effectively carried on and since in every instance their effective performance is a function of education, no public junior college properly sensitized to its societal responsibilities would ever commit the fate of the indicated learnings to the discretion—much less the whim—of its students. Instead, such a school would so far as possible make these learnings central in its required curriculum in general education.

In order to aid in the development of the desired attitudes, insightful understandings, and appropriate modes of behavior in reference to these necessary social processes, the program of general education to be required so far as possible of all students should include *whatever is functionally related thereto and no more* from the arts (literature and the fine and applied arts), philosophy and ethics, mathematics and the biological, natural, and social sciences. The same principle should be applied to whatever other subject matters may be capable of yielding similar aid.

A word of caution may be in order here. What should *not* be tolerated is precisely what now obtains in some junior colleges: namely, utilizing some combination of the standard liberal arts courses as the curriculum in general education. Much too frequently most of the content of these traditional courses bears no demonstrable functional relationship to the *common needs of man*, the only defensible bench mark for determining what should and what should not be included in the general education curriculum to be required so far as possible of all students.

The second component of the required "common learnings," "core," or "general education" aspect of the public junior college curriculum should center around the commonly experienced "felt" needs of youth. Included here would be provision for those needs of youth which stem in the main from commonly experienced or anticipated personal inadequacies in reference to abilities or other qualities which youth have discovered one must possess in order to "get on" in school and in life. Among the types of learnings, or help, of which the junior college youth commonly feels in need in this regard, the following are typical: orienting himself to the new school; discovering the nature and degree of his interests and abilities; developing good study habits; acquiring needed vocational and educational information; choosing an appropriate vocation; choosing appropriate elective subjects and student activities; learning how to improve his personal appearance; acquiring good manners, poise, and self-confidence; learning how to express himself more effectively and enjoyably both in oral and written speech; learning how to read more skillfully and enjoyably; becoming a more cultivated and interesting person; acquiring skills in social dancing, games, sports, handicrafts, music, art, *etc.*; learning what makes him "tick" emotionally and biologically; learning how to keep healthy and physically fit; preparing for a happy marriage, intelligent home management, and wise parenthood; developing good work habits; learning how to get a job and progress in it; developing an adequate philosophy of life.

In the above basic principles which should govern the general education, common learnings, or core curriculum in the public junior college, the Committee is in substantial agreement. It is unable, however, to agree that any one of the various designs for the general education curriculum is definitely to be preferred over all others. Indeed, no member of the Committee is strongly of this opinion. All are agreed, however, that two of the possible designs are definitely not worthy of recommendation. Consequently, these two patterns will first be noted and the Committee's major reasons for its negative recommendations given. Then the designs of which the Committee more or less equally approves will be stated briefly.

One of the proposed designs for general education which the Committee believes to be inadequate is the so-called "One Hundred Great Books" approach. The Committee is fully aware that there is much of great value in the "Great Books" and believes that they should be consulted in reference to whatever of the timeless problems of man they treat. The Committee is convinced, however, that most of the real and vital problems of man are not timeless. Instead, it believes that these problems always have a setting in a particular time and place. To illustrate, the problem of guaranteeing peace and physical

security in the atomic age can scarcely be resolved by minds trained to think in terms of this problem as it existed in Plato's time. And so it is with all other essential social processes, which, as the price of societal survival, must effectively be carried on under the changed and changing conditions of today and tomorrow. Because it believes that education should be primarily oriented toward the present and the future rather than the past, the Committee cannot regard the "Great Books" approach as being at all adequate to the needs of our time.

Unlike the "Great Books" approach, the second design for general education which the Committee believes to be seriously inadequate is rather prevalent in junior colleges. This is the traditional liberal arts pattern. The standard liberal arts subjects, each too commonly organized and taught in harmony with its own inner logic and seldom related in any effective way either to one another or to the vital problems of our day, do not in the opinion of the Committee sufficiently afford the learning experiences which societal survival and the personal needs of youth make mandatory. Consequently, although it believes that much of great value is afforded by the standard liberal arts subjects, the Committee does not feel that the traditional liberal arts pattern of general education is one that can be justified in the public junior college.

The three types of general education programs which the Committee believes to be of promise are popularly known as the "survey course," the "life needs," and the "common learnings," or "care course," approaches.

One of the root ideas which activates those institutions in which the survey-course approach to general education is operative is the belief that the commonly experienced demands of life make desirable an exploration of each of the major fields of learning. Survey courses which cut across not only subjects but also entire departments are commonly set up in physical science, biological science, social science, and the humanities, and required of all students. This pattern is sometimes enlarged by the addition of still other survey courses of a similarly broad nature. To illustrate, the Pasadena Junior College has added to the four just noted a course in "The American Family" and a general orientation course. Columbia College, Chicago University, and the Pasadena Junior College are conspicuous among the many institutions that have had extended successful experience in offering survey courses.

Depending on how they are conceived, organized, and taught, survey courses may or may not satisfy the criteria which the Committee feels should be met in the name of general education. The work can be, and sometimes is, academic and virtually as sterile as that too frequently encountered in stand-

ard liberal arts courses. Or it can be, and frequently is, live and vital. Which of the two outcomes is realized is in large measure determined by the philosophy of education which is typified and the skill of the instructor. If the underlying philosophy is one which assumes that there exists a relatively fixed body of subject matter, the mastery of which constitutes a general education, the results are certain to be disappointing. In the opinion of the Committee, a much more desirable procedure is to teach from within each broad field area only the subject matter that needs to be learned to assure societal survival and improvement and to enable students to meet their commonly experienced or anticipated needs.

Good teaching can, of course, make the most sterile materials palatable, and poor teaching can make highly distasteful even the most vital of subject matter. The survey-course pattern in itself does not therefore assure the type of general education here visualized as desirable. But it is clear that this design does make possible and likely the types of learning experiences which a vital general education must by definition provide. Consequently, although aware of the ease with which it may be subverted, the Committee feels that the survey-course approach is one which the public junior colleges of the state should consider favorably.

The "life needs" approach to general education is typified by the work at Stephens Junior College and at the General College of the University of Minnesota. The former institution (for women only) made a careful study of the inclusive real-life needs of women as the basis for its general education curriculum and then designed courses affording the types of learning experiences indicated by the study. This interplay of research and course design has continued at Stephens College and given it what is quite generally regarded as one of the most adequate curricula in general for women to be found in any institution. The procedure at the General College follows a similar pattern, and most competent observers agree that a vital program of general education has resulted.

It should be noted, however, that the work at both institutions has been bitterly criticized by persons who are not in sympathy with the root purpose involved; namely, that of exalting functional understandings of life's problems over the mastery of the standard subject matter of the traditional liberal arts subjects. At base, then, the quarrel is really over the question of what the purposes of general education in a democracy should be. The Committee believes that the "life needs" approach has much to recommend it and feels that this design is worthy of serious consideration by the public junior college of Illinois.

The "core course," or "common learnings," approach is, with certain unimportant exceptions, largely a structural variant of the "life needs" pattern. Whereas the latter usually provides several separate courses, each functionally built around some category of important life needs, the former consists of a single course of not less than one hour per day running through all years of the junior college and so far as possible required of all students. Paradoxically, this "core course" is not physical science, not biological science, not social science, not the humanities, not mathematics, and not the arts—yet it is, in a very real sense, all of these and more. The course is designed to make a direct attack upon the societal and personal problems which are regarded as most crucial or important.

The scope of these problems is determined by reference to (a) the essential social processes and the "new mind" which their successful discharge makes it necessary to create and (b) the commonly experienced or anticipated problems of youth. A resource unit is constructed around each such major problem or cluster of closely related problems. These resource units are co-operatively built by representatives of each subject-matter area in the total school curriculum. When well designed, each such resource unit will contain at least five things. *First*, there will be a section to orient the teacher to the problem in question and to supply him with minimum basic information believed to be necessary. *Second*, the objectives to be striven for in attacking the problem will be stated—in other words, what must a person *know*, *believe*, and *be able to do* in order to cope successfully with the problem in question? *Third*, a variety of potentially fruitful learning experiences will be suggested, with each teacher contributing from his field whatever relates to the learnings to be striven for. This section is the heart of the resource unit and will usually consume half of its total pages. *Fourth*, a section on evaluation will be included in which are given practical procedures for determining the degree to which the desired learnings have been effected. *Fifth*, an annotated bibliography will be appended.

Once constructed, the resource unit serves as the "storehouse" for the instructor in the "core course." He turns to it for practical help of virtually all needed types in building a teaching unit appropriate for his particular group of students. Thus the resources of all subject areas are placed at the disposal of the "core course" teacher—a necessity for effective instruction in reference to any given real-life problem, since no such problem can be adequately understood, much less resolved, by utilizing the subject matter of any one broad field area.

Some members of the Committee feel that this "core course" approach is the most promising of all, and all feel that it should be favorably considered by the junior colleges of this commonwealth. It represents the most thorough-going curriculum reorganization of any of the types discussed and quite completely scraps the traditional academic approach to general education. Because of these reasons, it is as yet but very infrequently found in practice. The Santa Maria (California) Junior College, under the principalship of Andrew Hill, successfully installed this type of a general education program in the late thirties.

VOCATIONAL TRAINING IN THE SEMI-PROFESSIONS ADEQUATE TO QUALIFY YOUTH FOR
EFFECTIVE IMMEDIATE ENTRANCE INTO THE OCCUPATIONAL WORLD SHOULD
BE PROVIDED FOR ALL TERMINAL STUDENTS

Both from the standpoint of the needs of the community and from that of the needs of youth, it is necessary that an adequate program of terminal vocational education be offered by the public junior college. It is significant that all five of the national agencies which accredit junior colleges today recognize terminal education as a legitimate function of these institutions.

About half of the total gainfully employed population of some 48,000,000 persons in 1940 were engaged in occupations for which adequate preparation is distinctly on the junior college level. These were predominantly in what are known as the semiprofessions for which two years of training beyond grade twelve qualifies most workers. There is here afforded a rough measure of the vast magnitude of society's need for junior college terminal vocational education.

The junior college of America, and especially those of Illinois, are—as we noted earlier in this report—typically not meeting this need very adequately. In a study just before the war it was found that, although 75 per cent of all junior college students were in fact terminal students, only 34 per cent were enrolled in one or more terminal courses. The corresponding percentages for Illinois were found to be 71 and 17, respectively.

These discrepancies are due to at least four important reasons, *First*, many junior colleges offer little or no work of a terminal vocational character. *Second*, parents and students alike (and sometimes the instructors as well) too frequently think of the junior college as having no important function other than that of preparing students for the upper division of standard four-year institutions. *Third*, students too frequently feel that they will be stigmatized if they enroll in terminal courses. *Fourth*, many high schools have developed excellent terminal vocational courses with the result that students who have

taken this work either are not attracted to the junior college by an offering of a similar nature or take other types of courses if they do attend.

Four constructive remedies are clearly indicated. *First*, an adequate program of terminal vocational education should be provided by the junior college. *Second*, these vocational opportunities should adequately be interpreted to students and parents through an effective guidance program. *Third*, vigorous efforts should be made to change the attitudes of the faculty, student body, and the public in reference to terminal as compared with college preparatory courses—the prestige of the former should be enhanced in every way desirable. *Fourth*, terminal vocational courses should be placed in grades thirteen and fourteen and greater emphasis placed on general education in the high-school years—a move which would be greatly facilitated were (as the Committee believes it should be) the 6-4-4 plan of organization adopted.

That these remedies will prove effective if put to work is abundantly attested by the experience of the Pasadena Junior College. In 1926 this was a two-year junior college, separate and distinct from the high schools of the city. At that time it offered a little in the way of terminal vocational courses and did relatively little by way of guidance. Students who took terminal courses felt stigmatized, and less than 5 per cent were so enrolled. In 1928 Pasadena reorganized on the 6-4-4 plan, and the Junior College became an integral part of the public school system as a four-year institution. Including grades eleven, twelve, thirteen, and fourteen under a single faculty and administration, the Pasadena Junior College became the uppermost unit in the secondary-school span and no longer deluded itself that its business was "higher education." An adequate terminal vocational education program was instituted and an effective program of guidance set up. Concentrated attention was directed to the problem of building up the prestige of the terminal courses. The results over a ten-year period were little short of amazing. By 1936, the percentage of students enrolled for terminal courses had risen from the less than 5 per cent of 1926 to slightly over 60 per cent. Also, the unification of grades eleven through fourteen under a single administration made possible a greatly improved general education program designed on the survey course pattern. Nor was this all; the students who transferred upon graduation to the university made records on the average which were appreciably better than those of the university's "native sons."

So far in this discussion little explicit attention has been accorded the needs of students in reference to terminal vocational education. Some of the major lines of evidence bearing on this question will now be passed in quick review.

It is a matter of common observation that the age of entry into gainful occupations has been rising over the past several decades. This trend is still operative and, in the considered judgment of some 75 per cent of a large number of competent judges canvassed in a recent poll, will probably soon stabilize at about age twenty or twenty-one—which happens to be the age at which most students complete grade fourteen. One implication of this fact—which is somewhat aside from the argument of this section—is that since business and industry will not accept them and since idleness is socially undesirable if not disastrous, the junior college should retain all youth through grade fourteen. Another implication is that by age twenty or twenty-one youth are in need of salable vocational skills, and hence should have available to them an adequate program of terminal vocational education, in order that that three-fourths who typically prefer or are obliged to do so may immediately enter the labor market and command a living wage.

Closely related to the trend just noted is the fact that the proportion of workers engaged in those occupations for which junior college training is adequate has risen very appreciably and may be expected to continue to do so as life becomes more complex. Between 1910 and 1930, the percentage so employed rose from 43 to 49 and is now believed to be appreciably over 50. With increasingly less opportunity to sell their services if unskilled or but semiskilled, youth need proportionately greater opportunities to acquire the more advanced vocational competencies which will make them employable and thus insure them a stake in the material good things of life.

The increased and increasing longevity of the American population will compound the effects, whether good or bad, of the junior college's policy and practice in reference to terminal vocational education. Were present-day 20-year-old youth living in 1900 instead of today, their life expectancies would be for but another 28 (men) or 31 (women) years. Today, however, 20-year-olds can typically look forward to from about 41 (men) to 45 (women) more years of life during which time they will either reap the benefits accruing from adequate vocational preparation or suffer the inadequacies which its absence entails.

The phrase "an adequate program of terminal vocational education" has repeatedly been encountered in these pages. So far, however, it has been given no substance. Obviously, if the Committee knows what it is talking about, it can, and, if it hopes to be maximally helpful to the reader, it will make explicit what it means by "an adequate program of terminal vocational education." Although what constitutes adequacy for the youth in question is to a consider-

able degree a function of geographic location at least in a regional sense, a relatively specific answer can be given. Business activities are found in all regions; consequently, secretarial, accounting, salesmanship, and especially general business curricula¹ should be offered in virtually all junior colleges. In addition, curricula in merchandising, banking, and business management would be desirable in many communities.

Semiprofessional public-service occupations are found in many of the smaller and in all of the larger cities. Preparation for these occupations would include curricula in teaching, recreational leadership and physical education, library aids, peace officers, and social service.

The fact that ours is a technological civilization gives rise to many semiprofessional occupations of an engineering or technological nature. Depending on the geographic location of the school, one or more of the following curricula should be provided: general engineering, aviation, mechanical engineering, electrical engineering, auto mechanics, radio engineering, chemical engineering, building trades, civil engineering, oil technology, agricultural engineering, air conditioning, art metal, drafting, mining, and welding.

The fine and applied arts afford semiprofessional vocational opportunities in many localities. These imply curricula in art, music, drama and speech, photography, architecture, costume design, and interior decoration.

Agriculture is the dominant vocational outlet in many communities and gives rise to the need for curricula in general agriculture, forestry, and floriculture.

Health services are everywhere in evidence, more abundantly so in the larger and more wealthy centers of population. There are many semiprofessional occupations in this area of service. The terminal vocational education curricula needed here would be those which prepare medical secretaries, dental assistants, physical therapists, and workers in public health and sanitation.

Home economics training qualifies for many semiprofessions in which employment opportunities are widespread. Courses of the following types are variously needed to prepare for those occupations: food and cooking, clothing and textiles, household management, home furnishings and decoration, nutrition and dietetics, child care, costume design, home nursing, household equipment, and institutional management.

Semiprofessional opportunities also exist in the field of journalism. Students who desire to enter such occupations need courses such as the following: principles of journalism, editorial and newswriting, interpretation of news,

¹ Each of the curricula would be comprised of appropriate courses.

newspaper organization and management, copy reading and editing, publicity stories, and newspaper field work.

Most curricula (each comprised of appropriate courses) noted above usually take two years to complete, and most of the courses listed are one semester in length.

The curricula and courses enumerated in the preceding paragraphs constitute the principal (not all) curricula and courses which junior colleges were found in a recent nation-wide study to be offering. No one institution was offering them all, but some were supporting an offering of great vocational breadth.

Except for those located in Chicago, the public junior colleges of Illinois are typically very deficient in reference to their terminal vocational offerings. This deficiency is, in fact, quite prevalent throughout the twenty states covered by the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. One member of the Committee recently examined 44 junior college catalogs from this area and found the following presumed terminal curricula offered by the number of schools noted in the parentheses: engineering (44), commerce (31), nursing (24), music (20), education (18), secretarial (18), home economics (18), journalism (16), agriculture (11), forestry (10), library science (10), art (9), physical education (9), medical secretarial (5), social work (5), distributive occupations (3), aviation (3), dramatics (2), business (2), industrial science (2), dental secretarial (2), painting and sculpture (2), hotel management (1), police administration (1), dietetics (1), home planning (1), interior decoration (1), store management (1), laboratory technique (1), and the dance (1).

Whatever the situation throughout the other nineteen states may be, it is apparent that the reason for the deficiency in terminal vocational offerings in the public junior colleges of down-state Illinois is causally related to the fact that state support for junior college education is at present woefully inadequate in this, the fourth wealthiest commonwealth. Terminal vocational education is expensive, far more so than education of the traditional academic college preparatory type. If the citizens of Illinois want that overwhelming majority of their youth who do *not* continue their formal education in standard four-year institutions to be adequately prepared to earn a living, they must do two things: *First*, they must develop a sound system of publicly supported junior colleges, with such colleges located in the various regions of Illinois as needed and warranted. *Second*, they must insist that sufficient state support be

provided to permit these local regional institutions to support an adequate program of terminal vocational education.

COLLEGE-PREPARATORY COURSES FOR COLLEGE-BOUND STUDENTS ADEQUATE TO
QUALIFY THEM FOR JUNIOR STANDING IN STANDARD
COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES

Typically, the junior colleges of America have achieved a marked degree of success in qualifying college-bound students for junior standing in standard colleges and universities. The generalized findings of a number of carefully conducted research studies show with almost monotonous regularity that junior college transfers from accredited institutions make academic records in their junior and senior years which, on the average, equal or excel those made by the university's "native sons."

The junior college is still too largely confined to a "strait jacket" so far as its freedom to control its own college preparatory curriculum is concerned. Each of the various standard four-year institutions to which its graduates transfer usually imposes its own specific pattern of preparatory courses from which little or no deviation is permitted. Further, these required patterns differ from institution to institution. So long as these conditions prevail, and they promise to continue into the foreseeable future, the contributing junior college has no alternative except to discover what these patterns are and require them of those of its students who plan to qualify for the baccalaureate degree.

The fact that the college preparatory curriculum is thus so almost completely externally determined and the further fact that junior college transfers typically do succeed in the standard institutions makes it unnecessary to offer any extended discussion in this section. What does remain to be said, however, is that continued attention must be given to the public junior colleges' preparatory function since no such institution can continue to merit the financial support of the total community except as it ministers to the educational needs of all youth. Though a minority, that 25 to 30 per cent of the junior college student body who typically pursue professional study, research, or other specialization in higher institutions must continue to have their preparatory needs adequately met.

ADEQUATE GUIDANCE AND OTHER NECESSARY PERSONNEL
SERVICES FOR ALL YOUTH

It is not difficult to demonstrate the need for guidance and other insignificant personnel services on the part of junior college youth. To begin with, youth of this age group are at a period in life in which certain far-reaching decisions must be made. It is of course important both to the individual and to

society that these decisions be wisely made—which means, among other things, that they should be made in the light of all pertinent facts and probabilities. Prominent among these important decisions are the student's choice of an occupation, his decision concerning whether or not, and—if indicated—where, to pursue further formal education, his choices of courses and student activities, and quite frequently the choice of a mate.

To resolve the problems to which the necessity of making these decisions gives rise, the student needs various important types of information and help. He needs self-knowledge—knowledge of the nature and strength of his vocational interests and abilities, his capacity to learn, his educational interests, his avocational preferences, his physical and emotional health status, his other qualities of personality, and his handicapping disabilities of whatever type, if any. He needs a knowledge of all external facts pertinent to his decisions—information concerning occupations and the labor market, information concerning the offerings of his own school, information concerning opportunities for continued training elsewhere, and information concerning any present or probable future societal condition which has any important bearing on his plans. Most important of all, he needs an adequate philosophy of life to afford the value bench marks essential to intelligent decision-making. And, finally, he needs wise and sympathetic counsel in order to “fit the pieces together” and make sensible choices.

Many other problems which also indicate the need for guidance or other personnel services frequently beset the junior college student. He may be in need of orientation to his new school—to its physical facilities, regulations, traditions; customs, *etc.* He may have a health problem which is impeding him. He may be handicapped by some remediable speech handicap, or be hard of hearing, or have defective eyesight. He may be crippled. He may be deficient in his reading skills, or not know how to study effectively. He may be in personal difficulty with an instructor. He may be deficient in the qualities required to be socially acceptable—his grooming may need attention, he may lack social skills in conversation and dancing, he may have remediable personality quirks which prevent him from getting along effectively with people. He may be beset with feelings of inadequacy and insecurity. He may have home or other out-of-school difficulties or be beset by any number of other personal problems. Wise sympathetic counsel can do much to help such students to overcome their difficulties.

Viewed in terms of structure, the guidance and personnel program adequate to meet the needs of youth just discussed would embody the following services or features:

1. There would be a group guidance course regularly installed as a part of the required common curriculum which would be in charge of an appropriately trained instructor-counselor and for which course credit would be given. It would be designed to orient the new student to his school, to provide adequate vocational information (no small task in view of America's 20,000 occupations and the complexity of her economic life), to afford needed educational information, and to supply those types of information commonly needed by students in solving their more typical problems of personal and social adjustment. The standard testing program of the school (see following paragraph) would be administered as part of this course and the students would there be taught how to interpret test data concerning themselves. Self-appraisal activities would be stressed in this required offering.

2. There would be a testing program embracing all students, and additional testing and diagnostic services would be available as individually needed. The standard testing program would include periodic health examinations, a diagnosis of eyesight and hearing, a speech diagnosis, a test of capacity to learn, a test of reading rate and level of comprehension, an emotional adjustment inventory, a vocational interest inventory, and a test of broad-field-area subject-matter grasp. Special tests of aptitude and personality patterns would be available as needed.

3. A cumulative record would accompany the student from the primary school through the junior college. If lacking, this would be instituted by the junior college. In this folder would be assembled all test and inventory data, health and physical fitness records, data concerning home background and other out-of-school influences, records of past educational and other achievements, work samples, anecdotal records of significant behavior, the student's statement of his future plans, *etc.* This folder would be easily and quickly available to any school official who might counsel with him.

4. Individual counseling would be adequately provided by psychologically trained counselors. Each such counselor would be in charge of one or more sections of the group guidance course and would there lay the basis in common understandings for individual counseling. The students in each counselor's sections of this course would be his advisees all during their stay in the junior college. These counselors would also conduct "pre-orientation" activities in the lower school unit and follow up (see paragraph below) their advisees after they had been graduated or left school.

5. There would be an adequate placement and follow-up service, for the job of the school is not completed until the student is adequately inducted into either his chosen occupation or the standard college of his choice and is making

satisfactory progress therein. This service constitutes one of the most useful bridges between the school and its community. Nothing more certainly proves the school's genuine interest in and concern for its students—hence the service is a great boon to public relations. No less important, the service puts the school in regular continuing contact with employers and university officials and thus affords it the data necessary to a continuous appraisal of the effectiveness of its various curricula.

In addition to the personnel services noted in the preceding five paragraphs, certain others are commonly needed. There should be rest rooms and sun porches for the physically delicate, special diets for students whose health requires them, special transportation and equipment for the crippled, eyeglasses and a special sight-saving room and equipment for the visually handicapped, a lip-reading class and hearing aids for the hard of hearing, a speech clinic for those deficient in such skills, a "how to study" clinic for those who need this type of help, a social dancing clinic for those lacking in this social skill, and a student aid service for the financially distressed.

The organization and personnel service should be under a single responsible head of whatever title directly answerable to the administrative head of the school. There should be a trained counselor, responsible to the Director of Guidance and Personnel service, for every 150 to 200 students. These counselors would variously handle such of the special clinics noted above as require technical training over and above that possessed by capable classroom teachers. Selected classroom teachers would handle those clinics not requiring special technical training. Except for medical and dental examinations, the counselors would conduct and interpret all tests. Depending on the size of the school, one counselor would devote half-time or more to the supervision of the placement service and co-ordinate the follow-up activities carried on by his fellows. And far from least important, every classroom teacher would be imbued with the personnel point of view and typify it in his every act.

SHOULD PROVIDE WHATEVER ADULT EDUCATION OF LESS THAN UNIVERSITY GRADE
THE PUBLIC MAY DESIRE AND SHOULD SERVE AS THE PRINCIPAL
CULTURAL CENTER OF THE COMMUNITY

The need for adult education was not particularly acute in our slowly changing society of a century or so ago. The problems of living which confronted men at that time differed only in small degree from those with which their forefathers had grappled. Consequently, the "answers" or solutions handed down from the past work quite adequately. Since the very process of growing up taught these "answers," there was little vital need for adult edu-

cation. The "received wisdom of the elders" was with relatively few exceptions sufficiently adequate to the needs of the times.

Today all this has been drastically changed and effective adult education has become an imperative for civilized survival. The introduction of scores of inventions and processes (e.g., the factory system, the automobile, the airplane, the radio, automatic machinery, and now nuclear energy and the atom bomb) has proved to be revolutionary. Technological changes separated the worker from the ownership of his shop and tools and made him the dependent upon employment by another for his bread, took the small independent farmer off the land and crowded him into the great cities, created great newspaper chains which swallowed up the independent local newspaper, put the population on wheels with the automobile (which has killed people by the thousands on the highways and put millions in the hospital), destroyed the family as an economic unit and took away the former control of parents over their children, depleted the topsoil, wasted the forests, polluted the streams, killed off the wildlife, brought on the "boom and bust" economic cycle, concentrated wealth in fewer and fewer hands, permitted racketeering to flourish, made bitter enemies of capital and labor, squeezed the consumer between big business and big labor, put big government into business, created an age of propaganda, increased the number and power of pressure groups, delayed the entrance of youth into gainful occupations and forced them to postpone marriage, shrank the entire world into a small neighborhood with the radio and the airplane, made all the people of the earth dependent upon one another, made all important national problems international in character, and now threatens us all with extinction or a return to barbarism with the atom bomb.

Under such changed and changing conditions—and the serious *new* problems to which these give rise (of which we have noted but a small proportion)—it is clear that the old answers won't work. These unworkable old answers most adults are still carrying around in their heads, for these they have "inherited" or "absorbed" from their parents and other elders. New answers are desperately needed, and they must be worked out through study and discussion—in short, by adult education.

The public junior college has a tremendously significant role to play in this dramatic race between education and catastrophe. It should be the community's central and most vital agency for adult education. Some junior colleges are doing yeoman work in this regard, and every public junior college should pattern after or go beyond these pioneering institutions and constitute itself a public forum for the study and discussion of the vital problems of the

day. It should conduct informal courses, sponsor competent speakers, hold round-table and panel discussions, arrange symposiums, schedule debates, make reading material available, employ visual aids, utilize the radio and the printing press, and in every other desirable way dramatize the need and attempt to meet it through adult education.

But it is not only in reference to the social problems of the day that an expanded adult education program is needed. Workers need to up-grade their vocational skills or to acquire new ones. The public junior college should continuously be engaged in reading the "occupational pulse" of the community, make workers aware of imminent opportunities through a program of public information and meet through its adult vocational program the felt needs thus or otherwise induced. The vocational testing, counseling, placement, and follow-up service should be extended to adults as well as to youth. Before passing on to our next consideration, it should be observed that it is in this vocational training area that the junior college is probably making its most extensive contribution to adult education at the present time.

Another highly desirable type of public service which all junior colleges might well attempt to provide is suggested by the extended day program in the Pasadena Junior College. Some 1000 adults, many of whom are college or university graduates, are enrolled as regular students for regularly offered courses in the late afternoon and evening, or extended day as it is called. These adults must meet all the regular requirements as to prerequisites, class attendance, *etc.* The same examinations are given, and the same credit received by the "regular" (though Pasadena makes no such distinction) students is duly recorded for those adults who successfully complete the work. These older students take desired courses in virtually every department of the college. Essentially, these are either people who were qualified to go to college but did not do so at the conventional age and are now remedying this deficiency, or they are college graduates who are filling the gaps in their college training.

Adults as well as youth have hobby horses which they like to feed. This is altogether desirable and should be encouraged and aided by the public junior college. This institution should at all times stand ready to provide the needed space and facilities and to promote hobbies or leisure time study. Many institutions are today doing so, to the great benefit of their communities.

Many junior colleges have a substantial record of achievement in reference to the sponsoring of cultural activities for the benefit of the community. Symphony concerts, instrumental ensembles, vocal and instrumental soloists, lyceum programs, operettas, dramatic productions, and lecture series are among

the activities thus sponsored. Junior colleges active in this regard soon find themselves becoming the principal cultural center of the community.

One other important type of community service remains to be discussed. Provided only that the regularly enrolled youth first be adequately served, there is no good reason why the various responsible groups of the community should not be privileged and encouraged to utilize various of the physical facilities of the public junior college. Much can be accomplished to further the legitimate interests of the community through the utilization of such facilities as the auditorium, theater, rehearsal rooms, lecture halls, gymnasium, swimming pool, and playing courts or fields by duly authorized community groups under appropriately conceived and lived up to arrangements. This, too, is a practice which is widely prevalent among junior colleges.

A tuition-free public junior college which offers vital general education, terminal, and college preparatory curricula, which is equipped and organized for guidance and personnel services, and which serves as the principal agency for adult education in its area will truly make its community a better place in which to live and in which to make a living—and this for all the children of all the people.

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The Junior College

CALVIN S. SIFFERD

THE weak point in the American system of education, most authorities agree, seems to lie in the poor connection between high school and college. Colleges and universities, stressing research and scholarship, seem to have no interest in providing other than academic, preprofessional, or professional training as opposed to vocational training. There also seems to be a poor connection between the first two and last two years of college or university work. For many students the first two years should be different in purpose, content, organization, and method from the last two years with its specialization, preprofessional, professional preparation, and research.

High-school and college enrollments almost doubled from 1920-1930 and increased another fifty per cent in the next decade. With this general increase in student body, the junior college movement has spread until there are now 648 such institutions, about half of which are units of public school systems. It is often dangerous to generalize from past experiences, but such experiences should lead schoolmen to examine carefully junior college trends and conditions that may shape secondary education and its relationships to the high school and the college.

In the first four decades of the present century, life expectancy has increased 14.6 years for white males and 16.2 years for white females. This has resulted in a 35 per cent gain in the population between the ages of 65 and 75, and the total population in the meantime increasing only 7 per cent from 1930 to 1940. More and older people are staying in the economy. This has already resulted in a dearth of jobs for youth unless adequately trained, for even in prosperity the average high-school graduate finds it hard to find an adequate place in adult society.

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OCCUPATIONAL DEMANDS

Semitechnical skill is needed in many fields, the U. S. Office of Education reporting that an average of 5.2 technicians are needed for each engineer with a range of ratios from 2 - 1 to 20 - 1. Before the war the ratio was 2.5 - 1. It may be there is a comparable change in other fields.

Occupational groups which have shown the greatest increases are primarily derivative occupations; that is, they are largely dependent on basic industries which they serve. The question is whether such derivative occupational groups can take up the slack in the rate of growth caused by the decline in agriculture and manufacturing or whether they can provide for a continued expansion of the labor force. Then arises the question: Should personnel continue to be trained for clerical, distribution, and public service occupations?

H. Dewey Anderson and Percy E. Davidson, in *Occupational Trends in the United States*, observe that occupations concerned primarily with production, processing, raising, and preparing things for consumption, and for use in further production seem to be reaching their maximum demand for workers. With our distributive economy and purchasing power as it is, it seems unlikely that with our technological advances that as many workers will be needed as formerly.

If such technological advances create unemployment problems, what is the effect on education? The school may claim its place is a substitute for unemployment as is, or it may feel that the whole program is in need of revision; for, when old industries disappear and new ones are established, the workers have little ability to adapt themselves to new conditions.

In attempting to resolve the question of the academic *versus* the vocational, the junior college is proposed as the logical institution to accept responsibility for the latter. This practical education, called terminal education, means the ending of formal education with the completion of the fourteenth or college sophomore year.

That the junior college may be the logical place for these terminal courses is argued on the basis that the junior college is the terminus for three fourths or more of its entrants; that the academic and preprofessional offerings are available in colleges and universities so that there is no need to duplicate them in junior colleges; that many persons have no interest in these academic offerings; that a newer and rising class of semiprofessional persons need offerings less extensive than professional education but more comprehensive than those offered by trade schools.

The term semiprofessional has the same connotation as professional but on a less extensive scale. Semiprofessional curricula endeavor to place approximately equal emphasis on courses designed to develop professional skill and proficiency and on courses providing culture, vision, appreciation, and better citizenship. With the junior college holding to such a two-fold purpose, the semiprofessional student will, if he desires, have the opportunity to extend his preparation to full professional status.

The demand is coming for more and a different kind of education for those waiting to take their places in adult society or attempting to gain and hold the status enjoyed by their parents. The junior college, as an agency for inducting young people into adult society, may bridge this gap between high school and employment by offering the opportunity for continuing education or for preparing for unskilled or semiskilled jobs. This places before educators an opportunity for a service which they have not had before. Granting that sufficient social, economic, and political backgrounds are available to furnish an adequate junior college, there is still confronting the schoolman the problem of "what do we want and need in a junior college?"

EDUCATION FOR ALL YOUTH

In considering these wants and needs, cognizance must be taken of the youth junior colleges are to serve and of the trends of the times. A century ago it was believed that a large part of the population was uneducable. Today the belief prevails that educational resources should be spread to all youth. While universal education is not a realization, we are nearer to it than is any other nation.

Nearly 30 million persons attended full-time day schools in 1939-1940. About two thirds of this number were in kindergarten and elementary schools, a fourth in secondary schools, and the remaining one and a half million in higher institutions of learning with less than half a million in commercial and vocational schools. These were enrolled in 238,168 elementary and secondary schools and 1,751 colleges and universities.

According to the sixteenth census of the United States there were over 2,670,000 youths between the ages of 5 and 24 attending school. This was 57.7 per cent of the total of over 46 million, while of the 16 to 24 year age group 41.6 per cent were in school. Of these, over 7 million were in secondary schools and almost a million and a half in higher institutions.

The number of students graduating from high schools is one of the American educational system's greatest accomplishments. From 1890 to 1940 the population of young people 18 to 21 years of age, inclusive, increased

only 89.3 per cent, but the number going on to college increased 850 per cent during the same period. With the number of students entering college approximately doubling every two decades, certain problems arise as are pointed out by Rufus D. Smith, Provost of New York University, in his *Tide of Youth*, when he states that with the grade-school population decreasing and the college population increasing the influx will tend to bring in students of lower intellectual caliber. At present it appears that at least 15 per cent of college students lack ability to succeed with present college requirements. This is despite the fact that the American Youth Commission has found that colleges would be justified in accepting 40 per cent of all the high-school graduates even though but half of this group ever enters college.

MORTALITY RATE

Mortality rates, as summarized by Coleman R. Griffith, Provost of the University of Illinois, in his *The Junior College in Illinois*, show that: "For every 1,000 students entering the first grade, about 620 fail to complete high school; of the 380 completing high school, about 265 do not go on to college; of the 115 continuing beyond high school, about 70 fail to complete college, and about 45 obtain college degrees."

This mortality seems to be the crux of the situation. With universal education as the ideal and goal of our American philosophy, present-day economies and the advances of technology warrant raising the level of schooling to the age of 20 and the fourteenth grade; but continuation rates between high school and college are low, and student mortality rates in colleges and universities, with the latter organizations being selective institutions with their curricula not adjusted to the needs of universal education, are high.

That this mortality rate has been a source of concern to educators for some time is evidenced by the fact that as long ago as 1905 Edmund J. James, President of the University of Illinois, in his inaugural address said: "My own idea is that the university ought not to be engaged in secondary work at all. . . . Consequently, our secondary schools, our high schools, and our colleges will be expected to take more and more of the work which is done in the lower classes of the different departments of the university as at present constituted, until we have reached the point where every student coming to the university will have a suitable preliminary training to enable him to take up, with profit and advantage, university studies in a university spirit and by university methods."

William Rainey Harper, former President of the University of Chicago, also felt concern on this score. Forty-five years ago he reorganized that university's curriculum so that the first two year's work was a division apart from the last two years, reasoning that many students find it convenient to give up college work at the end of their second year, that many students not really qualified for a complete college course will take at least two years, that some high schools will develop higher work, and that more colleges will concentrate on the freshman-sophomore levels.

These men, with other early leaders, were influenced by the European traditions which seek primarily to develop prospective leaders of society. Today the emphasis on the junior college would seem to be to furnish a broader program on a wider basis and over a longer period for more youth. The times are demanding a new, higher minimum level of skill, knowledge, and ability. The junior college should, therefore, further a general training combined with occupational and industrial preparation for both the old and new types of life work.

Those who probe into the future members of the National Resources Planning Board tell us that the time will come when the 1940 enrollment of 196,710 (enrollment of 455,048 was reported for 1948) in junior colleges and technical schools will be increased by 500 per cent. George P. Stoddard, President of the University of Illinois, expects that, with the development of the proper kind of junior colleges, 80 per cent of all high-school graduates will begin, and a large percentage will complete, a two-year program.

F. W. Thomas suggests that junior colleges have four functions: to popularize education by giving benefits to a great number who would not otherwise be able to take advantage of any education beyond the traditional high school; to give young people an opportunity to prepare for upper division college and university work by offering two years of work locally equivalent to the standard college and university freshman-sophomore work; to give general education for citizenship as well as specific preparation in vocational courses for semiprofessional occupations, qualifying students who finish them for immediate places in specific life occupations; and to develop scientific interests in the individual traits and abilities and in the personal welfare of the student, training him to think, to organize his studies effectively, to make his college experiences optimally profitable, and to assist him in finding his place after leaving the junior college, whether in a higher educational institution or in a life occupation.

Add Two Years; Then What?

KENNETH WINETROUT

WE have good reason to believe that before long the fourteenth year will become as common a graduation year as the present twelfth year. The G. I. Bill has undoubtedly given an impetus to the longer school period. The public junior or community college movement is growing. California has already carried this program to most of its school districts. New York is currently exploring the possibility of a state-wide system of community junior colleges. Other states have given strong evidence that they recognize their obligation to extend public education to the fourteenth year.

The program of these new schools will be broader than the conventional general education or pre-university curricula which many have come to associate with the junior college movement. Likewise, they are not being developed simply as a way of relieving the big universities of their surplus students. This movement is neither a temporary nor an emergency educational measure. It is a new and revolutionary step in American education.

Are we ready for it either as educators or as citizens?

This new program may be just added to the present system, and so give us the 6-3-3-2 plan; that is, six years of elementary school, three years of junior high school, three years of high school, and two years of college. Many leaders in this field of educational thought favor instead the 6-4-4 plan; that is, six years of elementary school, four years of secondary education, and four years of college.

As long as we preserve the present system with the 6-3-3-2 plan, a student will be able to drop out of school rather inconspicuously at the end of his twelfth year. Under the 6-4-4 plan, this same student would find himself under some compulsion to continue through his fourteenth year. He

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could not very easily quit at the end of the tenth grade. In order to qualify for a diploma and the various vocational certificates, which are likely to result from this extension of school, he would have to stay on until the fourteenth grade. There is no point for a gracious exit before that year. The system is structured to keep him in school until the age of twenty.

Educators are at times prone to look upon more education as a thing good *per se* without exploring the implications of an extension of education. To take a very simple example: school authorities could not very well maintain their current moral attitude toward smoking for boys in the thirteenth and fourteenth grades.

PROBLEMS TO FACE

But we are faced with serious problems, especially for the local municipal junior or community college. This extension means that we are going to have in school the same youths who until recent years habitually dropped out of school shortly after they finished junior high school. As the high school a few years back had to adjust to the presence of students drawn from all social and economic classes and from an extensive stratification of IQ's, so the new community school will have its adjustments.

This extension of graduation from the twelfth grade to the fourteenth creates a rather dramatic contrast with what we practiced during the war. In the 1940's, many youth were asked to leave behind home and school and play the part of a man in the Armed Services. These youth were on their own. Within the short space of a decade, we are asking youth to delay rather than hurry independent living. By the 1950's, the fourteenth grade may have taken the place of the twelfth grade as the normal terminal year.

Let us keep in mind that for many youths this prolongation of school does not mean any of the excitement of going away to live in a college town, to join a fraternity, to see intersectional football games. It means going on to school in the home town and, in many cases, under the same instructors and in the same buildings. Currently, municipal junior colleges are catering to students who have continued because of effective self-motivation. They are the superior academic and, if you will, the superior-attitude students. Soon we may expect unselected masses who are continuing in school because the system has been so structured that they had no easy out. (I am not suggesting some vague inferiority in this latter group.)

A system so structured that youths remain in school until they are twenty immediately suggests a mental health problem. We educators will have to make education more exciting, more meaningful, more varied if we

are going to keep youth in school for fourteen years. We cannot just give more of the same. Nor can we just dilute the conventional offerings and spread them thinner so they'll cover fourteen years instead of twelve. We are actually face to face with a very real issue, and one which we have overlooked in our joy that we are giving more and more education to American youth. Just possibly by controlled diet, we might get a student body which would accept the old curriculum extended for two more years without rebelling.

We are already well aware of the needs of children to experience success, to have a feeling of belonging. Mental hygiene has all but reversed our whole approach to grades and failures. The same influence has led us to devise all manner of curricular and extracurricular experiences in order that each child, each youth, might have some activity where he could participate and contribute significantly. It seems to me that we must expand this whole philosophy of supplying meaningful activities as we extend the school terminal point. To insure good mental health to our youth, we have to enrich curricular experiences all along the line. We will fall short of our solution if we delude ourselves into thinking that we can confine our attention to the two new grades which have been added.

When we add two years to the conventional twelve, we are not performing a bit of simple arithmetic; we are actually involving ourselves in a profound psychological series of events. The youngster who is bored stiff with school at the end of the tenth grade may be able to hold on without any serious effects until the end of the twelfth grade; but what if we make him stay on until the fourteenth? Add two years on, and you have to rethink the whole program from kindergarten to graduation.

UTILIZING COMMUNITY RESOURCES

The writer is in no position, nor has he the imagination, to rethink the whole program. However some ideas come to mind which are relevant to the problems peculiar to the last four years in a 6-4-4 plan. To enrich these last four years we must turn increasingly to co-operative training programs and utilization of community resources. For youth from sixteen to twenty and twenty-one, we are taking a big chance if we assume that we can keep them happy and in good mental health by relying solely on academic experience. At this age youths are ready to contribute to the community. The contributions to the community may take various forms: beautifying a park, conducting a campaign against racial prejudice, taking a poll of the community on a national election, making scrap drives for Red Cross funds, *etc.* While society may de-

lay the entrance of youth into normal social and economic life, it cannot delay the need for recognition, the need for an accepted status.

Likewise youth must have a chance to get vocational experience. This suggests that schools must increasingly make arrangements for co-operative job-school experiences in local factories, offices, stores, *etc.* Or, if such arrangements are impossible, the school must within its own physical plant afford opportunities for genuine vocational experiences. Vocational choice can give youth in school a direction. Nothing can so well motivate youth as a definite vocation; nothing can so well give youth a technique of structuring his school experiences. Here he can achieve integration.

An extended school life means that these vocational experiences must be varied. School administrators cannot be content with the generalized shop courses which seemed to satisfy the needs of youth eighteen or under. Youth, as well as their parents, will expect a real vocational competence at the completion of the fourteenth grade. The proponents of the junior college have pointed out that numerous occupations call for two years beyond the present twelve and yet do not call for a bachelor's degree. Competence in these occupations must be assured, or dissatisfactions will greet the beginnings of the 6-4-4 plan. Here is a qualification that cannot be ignored. The schools cannot offer simply more of the same.

Society will have to recognize that the school term has been extended. It will have to accept shorter apprentice periods for those who received occupational certificates at the end of their fourteenth year. Society will have to realize that as the schools offer a more varied and more intensive training, the per pupil cost will rise.

Teachers will have to accept persons whose academic training may be considerably less than theirs as equals on the staff. School systems had some experience with this sort of thing during the NYA and WPA training programs.

A FUNCTIONAL PROGRAM

In order to insure an adequate vocational or trades program, a variety of occupations must take their place in the curriculum. Likewise, the academic program must become considerably more varied as we hold students for two more years. The future municipal junior college with a 6-4-4 plan will bear little resemblance to the finishing school sort of junior college where broad areas of general education constitute about the whole of the curriculum. This latter type of college is catering to a select group. The municipal school is

not. The municipal junior college will have to offer a more functional curriculum, a less academic curriculum. The courses will run more to those dealing with contemporary affairs, with current social problems. Labor-organization, labor-management relationships, public relations, mental hygiene, marriage problems, child-care, UN, city-government, interior decoration, *etc.*, have a better chance of appearing in the curriculum than some of our historically more conventional subjects. In many cases, the courses will be such that adults who have completed their education may profitably return to school. Undoubtedly the inclusion of the thirteenth and fourteenth grades in the local school program means a significant increase in the variety of business or commercial courses.

The lengthening of the average school period means an increase in the number of courses. The current emphasis on general education may seem to imply that we are moving fast and definitely away from the elective system. The chances are that this emphasis will make for a more uniform program in the first two years of a student's university career. This again is the select group. The municipal school, if it hopes to retain a large majority of its student body, will find it necessary to offer a variety of courses. As it retains more and more of its students, it will offer more and more courses. This has been the history of the high-school curriculum in the United States.

The Harvard Report tried to identify that part of education which deals with one's responsibilities as a citizen as general education, and that part which deals with one's occupational competence as special education. This is an enforced and artificial dichotomy. Any occupation properly taught in an institution, which may rightfully be called an educational institution, will include the social responsibilities of that occupation. It is finally as a member of an occupation that most of us have to perform our most meaningful services as a citizen, our most significant contributions to society. In our municipal junior colleges, or whatever the name we assign to our fourteenth grade system, we shall no doubt find it more advantageous to integrate our citizenship responsibilities with our occupational training. We have seen too many examples of what happens when we compartmentalize citizenship responsibilities on one hand in an area called general education and vocational skills in an area called special education. We have an effective dualism, and the right hand knows not what the left hand does. We have had our share of gangsters who loved classical music and fine oils.

As educators plan to extend education to the fourteenth grade for all students, it is important that we do not let current discussions of general educa-

tion, such as the Harvard Report, prevent us from realistically approaching the problem in less academic terms and with less academic results. General education, as that phrase is most commonly used—and perhaps understood—is for the superior academic student. It has close ties with the old preparatory course in the secondary school. Our vocations must carry of themselves the responsibilities of the citizen. *Per se* we want trade ennobled and not by the accretion of something which supposed'y has no relationship to a trade. We have only to think of professional ethics as expanded to mean social ethics, social sensitivity, to gain some insight into the integration of general education and special education.

The municipal fourteen-year school will face new problems in the field of extracurricular activities. Most of the large junior colleges are in large cities where the majority of the high-school graduates normally attend a local college or university. These students had little vision of going away to school. For some time the small town or city, 8,000 to 50,000, will have to fight the dreams many students had of going off to the state university, of going out on their own at eighteen. Recreation facilities will have to be more than adequate to curtail this restlessness to get out of the home town. The municipal school may find itself thinking of golf courses, tennis courts, swimming pools, lunch bars, music rooms, and union buildings much in the manner of large universities.

The local community must encourage a type of academic freedom in this extended school system which it was reluctant to tolerate in the twelve-year system. Certainly young men and women of eighteen, nineteen, twenty, and twenty-one will not want a hush-hush attitude on controversial topics, on sex, on labor, on religion, on government ownership. They are mature enough to allow the most open and free discussions possible. The university has, as a sort of extraterritoriality niche in the community, been able to enjoy greater freedom than local school systems. If the fourteen-year school is going to match the greater maturity of its students, it cannot be intimidated by the narrow bigoted attitudes which have controlled the teachings in many high schools. This may be a little hard to swallow for some local boards of education; but so it must be. This is another phase that should make us realize that we are not just adding two more years of high school.

COMMUNITY RETURNS

The community should receive abundant rewards as a result of this new program. We want definite tangible dividends from this community project in educational investment. The local community has every right to expect

them. The local citizens cannot afford this extra tax-burden for the mere purpose of the self-edification of its younger members. Likewise, they cannot afford this kind of a project merely to keep young men and women from flooding the labor market.

Perhaps ten to fifteen years are necessary to get any genuine perspective of what the long school term means for the community. Some benefits, however, should be detected within a few years. The community's cultural life should be enriched with concert and lecture series. Discussion clubs should grow in number and in seriousness of purpose and effectiveness of operation. Adult education opportunities would be greatly increased. Documentary and foreign films would be available to the community in a way which the commercial movie house has never made them available. The crime rate should go down. Students in their use of community resources could make surveys of transportation, recreational, cultural, and industrial facilities which would be basic to civic improvement.

The final effects of a municipally supported education system that kept youth in school until the age of twenty can only be visualized. One far-reaching result might well be a decrease in population mobility. By keeping youth for two more years in their home town, we might find them less anxious to move. For one thing, the occupational training in the school would be geared partly to serve local trades needs. The increased cultural advantage should make them less eager to go to the distant city. Their own community would be one where young persons had a chance to develop their talents. They would not be so plagued by that long over-worked phrase "the advantages of a large city."

The presence of a such a large number of persons who had had the advantages of college physical education and recreation programs would inevitably make the community more recreation conscious. With the curriculum slanted toward the current and toward increasing social sensitivity, improvements ought to show up in the local governing units. I suspect that getting out of school about the same year as one reaches the voting age will have some effect.

In the long run we might well expect the present social and economic stratification into classes to be considerably weakened. The cultural gaps between the university educated and the locally educated would be decreased. Citizens would be articulate, able to express themselves, on a wide variety of subjects. Communication would not be blocked because someone had "only a high-school education." Where everyone has had "some college," the disparity

between low-income groups and high-income groups is lessened. By extending universal education to the fourteenth year, parents, teachers, and students themselves would have a good idea of just who should go on to the university. Educational wastage, in the form of sending those on who shouldn't go on and in failing to send on worthy students, would be appreciably decreased. Higher education might be more appropriately called "higher" education.

CONCLUSIONS

When we structure, organize, our universal education system in such a way that youth remain in school fourteen years, we are playing with some fundamental aspects of our whole society. We are entering vitally into the patterns of youth who have expected a break in their lives around the age of eighteen. If we want youth to remain in school until the age of twenty, we must be prepared to offer an education that will not offend the maturity of this age group. We must be prepared to offer experiences which make for a feeling of worth and success. We need a system which allows for a very real contribution from students. A society which asks youth to stay in school for fourteen years must likewise be ready to alter its own structure in such a way that it needs citizens who have devoted fourteen years to school. It has to make a place for better educated persons. When society adds two years of school, it too has to add something.

Yes, when we add two years to our present twelve years of school, we are not engaging in a process of simple arithmetic. We are involving ourselves profoundly in the psychological make-up of young people who, as they mature, are seeking meaning for their lives. We are involving ourselves inevitably in the structures of the social order itself.

We cannot simply add two more years of high school. We cannot just spread the twelve years a little thinner and let it run over two more at one end. No, we are playing with a minor social revolution. If we are brave enough to suggest more education, let us also be brave enough and imaginative enough to develop an education appropriate for this older group.

The Michigan Secondary School-College Agreement

LEON S. WASKIN

THE announcement of the negotiation of a new agreement between the secondary schools and the public and private colleges in Michigan has attracted considerable discussion. The purpose of this article is to indicate how the new agreement came into being, to describe its nature, to show how it is operating, to describe some of the changes that have resulted since its adoption, and to point out its significance both to local high schools and to the colleges.

STEPS LEADING TO THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE AGREEMENT

The Michigan Secondary School-College Agreement is a direct outgrowth of the Michigan Study of the Secondary-School Curriculum launched in 1937. The major objective of that Study has been the improvement of secondary education through helping the "communities, the schools, and the people study themselves and to assist them in developing points of view in planning and in utilizing effective, democratic ways of working at the improvement of the community's program of education."¹

During the course of their efforts to assist communities in improving their educational programs, members of the staff of the Study soon became aware that one of the major obstacles to change in the traditional pattern of secondary-school offerings was the problem of college entrance requirements. To what extent this was a real or simply a psychological barrier is perhaps a moot question. Nevertheless, college entrance requirements were frequently cited as reasons why a given high school could not make certain changes in

¹ Parker, J. Cecil; Menge, J. Wilmer; Rice, Theodore D. *The First Five Years of the Michigan Study of the Secondary-School Curriculum 1937-1942*. Lansing, Michigan: State Board of Education. 1942, p. 15.

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its program which it regarded as desirable. In order to free the high schools from this limitation upon their ability to explore modifications lying outside the traditional framework of subjects, a meeting was called in November, 1938, of representatives of the Study and of Michigan colleges. The outcome of this and other similar conferences was the formulation of the following statement of policy concerning admission of graduates of the fifty-four co-operating schools. This policy was officially adopted in June, 1939, by the majority of Michigan colleges.

.....agrees to admit graduates of
(Name of Institution)
schools included in the Michigan Study of the Secondary-School Curriculum in terms of its adopted standards of admission but without reference to the pattern of subjects which they have pursued, provided they are recommended by the school from among the more able students in the graduating class. It is our understanding that this agreement includes graduates of the schools in the years 1940 through 1950.²

SIGNED.....

TITLE.....

DATE.....

It should be noted that the colleges agreed to the above policy for a limited period of time (ten years) and agreed to observe it only for graduates of a relatively small number of high schools selected to participate in the Michigan Study of the Secondary-School Curriculum.

That Study is now in its closing phases. This article is not intended to be an account of the achievements and influence of the Study. However, the problem of extension of the activity represented by the Study beyond its present terminal date has been of great concern. Early in 1946, a committee of the Michigan Secondary-School Association considered this problem and decided that one of the most effective means for continuance of the Study of the Secondary-School Curriculum would be the extension of the agreement with the colleges to other high schools. They invited representatives of the Michigan College Association to meet with them, and a joint commission representing the two groups was formed. The Department of Public Instruction was represented through R. C. Faunce, then director of the Study, and later through the present director. After a series of meetings, that commission drafted a new agreement which was submitted to the Michigan

² *Ibid.*, p. 31.

College Association at its November, 1946, meeting and to the Michigan Secondary-School Association in December of that same year. The principal portions of the Agreement as approved by those two groups are as follows:

1. It is proposed that this Agreement be extended to include any accredited high school whose staff will make the commitments noted below in Section Two. The Agreement is as follows: "The college agrees to disregard the pattern of subjects pursued in considering for admission the graduates of selected accredited high schools, provided they are recommended by the school from among the more able students in the graduating class. This Agreement does not imply that students must be admitted to certain college courses or curricula for which they cannot give evidence of adequate preparation."

Secondary schools are urged to make available such basic courses as provide a necessary preparation for entering technical, industrial, or professional curricula. It is recommended further that colleges provide accelerated programs of preparation for specialized college curricula for those graduates who are unable to secure such preparatory training in high school.

2. High schools which seek to be governed by this Agreement shall assume responsibility for and shall furnish evidence that they are initiating and continuing such procedures as the following:
 - a. A program involving the building of an adequate personal file about each student, including testing data of various kinds, anecdotal records, personality inventories, achievement samples, etc. The high-school staff will assume responsibility for developing a summary of these personnel data for submission to the college.
 - b. A basic curriculum study and evaluation of the purposes and program of the secondary school.
 - c. Procedures for continuous follow-up of former pupils.
 - d. A continuous program of information and orientation throughout the high-school course regarding the nature and requirements of certain occupations and specialized college courses. During the senior year, to devote special emphasis to the occupation or college of the pupil's choice.
4. It is understood that high schools which cannot or will not make and observe the above commitments (see Section Two) will continue to employ the major and minor sequences for those students who wish to attend college.³

In addition, there was included a proposal for the establishment of a state committee on the Secondary School-College Agreement which would have the following as its main functions: "To study applications of new schools and to recommend certain of these schools to colleges for inclusion in the Agreement; also to determine from time to time whether the criteria have been met in the schools on the list."⁴

It was suggested that the committee would be served by a part-time staff provided by the Department of Public Instruction, the Bureau of Co-

³ Quoted from the mimeographed text of the agreement as approved by the Michigan College Association and the Michigan Secondary-School Association.

⁴ *Ibid.*

operation with Educational Institutions of the University of Michigan (which is the principal accrediting agency in the state), and the in-service committees of the various public colleges and universities in the state. It was proposed further that the committee should consist of three representatives from the Michigan Secondary-School Association, four from the Michigan College Association, one from the Michigan Association of School Administrators, and one from the Department of Public Instruction. In accordance with this proposal, Dr. Eugene B. Elliott, then Superintendent of Public Instruction, invited the several organizations to designate their representatives, and the first meeting was held on February 28, 1947. Leon S. Waskin, Chief, Division of Elementary and Secondary Education of the Department of Public Instruction, was designated to serve as Secretary to the committee. The present composition of this state committee is as follows:

VIRGIL M. ROGERS, *Superintendent of Schools*, Battle Creek

ARTHUR ANDREWS, *President*, Grand Rapids Junior College

HARLAN C. KOCH, *Professor of Education*, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor

EMIL LEFFLER, *Dean*, Albion College, Albion

JOHN R. RICHARDS, *Assistant to the President*, Wayne University, Detroit

RUSSELL L. ISBISTER, *Principal*, River Rouge High School (Now Superintendent, Center Line Public Schools)

DON RANDALL, *Principal*, Wayne High School

PHILIP H. VERCOE, *Principal*, Central High School, Flint

LEE M. THURSTON, *Superintendent of Public Instruction*, CHAIRMAN

SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCES FROM EARLIER AGREEMENT

It should be noted that the present Secondary School-College Agreement differs in several important aspects from the earlier one. In the first place, participation is open to any accredited high school in the state. (Accreditation has been interpreted to mean accreditation by the University of Michigan.) Secondly, no terminal date has been set up for the project. It has definite possibilities for becoming the central continuing activity for the improvement of secondary education in the state. Thirdly, schools are not admitted to the program in perpetuity. Their retention in the program depends upon their continuing to observe the four conditions set up in the Agreement. Authority is definitely vested in the state committee to drop any school that does not observe the four conditions.

REACTION OF THE COLLEGES TO THE AGREEMENT

The reaction of the colleges to the new Agreement has been most heartening. When the proposal was submitted to the Michigan College Association, final adoption, after very extended discussion, was by a unanimous vote. When the agreement was submitted to the colleges for ratification, al-

most without exception every recognized collegiate institution in the state, both public and private, adopted the Agreement. One or two adopted the Agreement with certain reservations, the most common of which was that they did not propose to provide, at the college level, accelerated programs for those graduates who were unable to secure preparatory training in the high school for certain specialized courses. They did agree, however, to accept such graduates.

The Agreement had not been in operation very long before it was found that the varying requirements for admission to the different schools of nursing in the state were causing secondary-school administrators a good deal of difficulty and were limiting the effectiveness of the Agreement. This problem was discussed with representatives of the State Board of Registration of Nurses and of the nurses' training schools. Letters were then sent out to the heads of these institutions inviting them to approve the Agreement, and at this writing (November, 1948), acceptances are coming in.

WORK OF THE STATE COMMITTEE

As the state committee began to function, a number of important issues immediately confronted it. Its first and immediate task was to pass upon applications from schools seeking admission to the new program. Even before this step was taken, a decision had to be reached about the schools already in the Michigan Secondary Study and covered by the old Agreement. The committee decided that the schools participating in the Michigan Secondary Study would not be included automatically in the new program but would have to apply in the same manner as any other accredited secondary school.⁵

The next issue was whether schools should be admitted only after they had already put into operation the activities indicated in the four conditions or whether the formulation of a reasonable plan for getting such activities under way in the near future would be sufficient. It was decided that participation would not be limited just to those who already had such activities well under way.⁶ It was agreed further that, at least for the time being, no formal application blank would be used nor would a visit by a representative of the committee be made a condition for admission. The actual admission of schools to the new program was begun at the May 6, 1947, meeting. Since that time, eighty-four high schools have been admitted. It might be added parenthetically at this point that, while it was originally thought that

⁵ Minutes of meeting of April 8, 1947.

⁶ *Ibid.*

this Agreement would be of principal value to the small high school, actual applications have come from high schools of all sizes ranging from metropolitan high schools enrolling 4,000 students down to small village high schools. Well over a fifth of the secondary-school pupils in the state are already in high schools admitted to this program.⁷

In the matter of evaluation of the program, the committee has moved slowly. It has taken the following position with respect to research:

- a. The committee should encourage the making of such follow-up studies as may be possible in schools in the Michigan Secondary Curriculum Study, both by the receiving colleges and the sending high schools.
- b. The committee should encourage member high schools to conduct follow-up studies on all students, college and noncollege, in terms of the locally recognized objectives of secondary education.
- c. The committee should encourage the devising and keeping of records of such a nature as may facilitate the later gathering of objective information on the values of secondary education.
- d. The committee should decentralize research projects among the high schools and colleges in so far as possible.
- e. The committee should associate itself constructively with agencies having similar interests; . . .⁸

It has also agreed to request an annual report from each participating school as of November 1 of each year. These reports are to be a summary anecdotal record of progress and intentions and ought to show the blocks and difficulties encountered by the school as well as achievements. It is proposed that the document be prepared co-operatively by the faculty and that sufficient copies of it should be prepared to enable distribution to the signatory colleges as well as to the committee. A sticker identifying the graduate as coming from a school in the Agreement has been developed and distributed to the participating schools with the suggestion that it be used on the transcripts of those applicants seeking admission to college whose pattern of courses falls outside the traditional sequence requirements. The committee is fully aware of the fact, however, that in any future evaluative studies these cases are not to be regarded as the only ones whose programs have been affected by the Agreement. There undoubtedly will be many other cases whose transcripts may still report the traditional pattern but whose school experiences, nevertheless, have been altered as a result of the freedom given schools under the Agreement.

The committee also strongly recommends to each participating secondary school that the faculty prepare every year a one-page mimeographed

⁷ Thurston, Lee M. "Michigan College Agreement." *School and Society*, May 22, 1948.

⁸ Minutes of meeting of April 8, 1947.

statement indicating the major objectives of the school and the principal modifications of the program with which the school is currently experimenting. Such a statement would be attached to the transcript of each student seeking admission to college. It would not be used as a factor in admission but would, it is hoped, serve to orient the counselors in college concerning the background and training of the student.

Members of the committee have begun a program of visits to some of the more active schools in the program. These visits are the result of the committee's desire to become better acquainted with some of the experimental efforts and to obtain a better insight into the problems and difficulties faced by the high schools. Continuation of these visits is being definitely planned.

It is expected that formulation of programs of research and evaluation will absorb a major portion of the committee's time in the future. It is also likely that the committee will engage upon an active promotional program to encourage participation by greater numbers of schools. Valuable contributions along this line have been made by the Committee on Secondary Education of the Michigan Curriculum Program.

FORMATION AND FUNCTION OF REGIONAL ASSOCIATIONS

One of the most interesting and significant outcomes of the new Secondary School-College Agreement Program has been the banding together of schools in the program into regional associations. Four such associations have already been organized and a fifth one is being contemplated. The general purposes for which these associations have been created are well illustrated by the following statement from the organization plan of the Southwestern Michigan Association of College Agreement Schools:

- a. To help member schools to implement the requirements under the College Agreement.
- b. To study activities of member schools.
- c. To exchange information on progress.
- d. To aid in the solution of mutual problems which arise from efforts to improve the educational programs in the respective schools.
- e. To facilitate the exchange of information on mutual problems between colleges and high schools in the area.
- f. To be ready to offer suggestions to the State College Agreement Committee concerning policies and practices affecting the College Agreement high schools and colleges.
- g. To secure assistance of resource persons to carry out these purposes.

In all of these associations both the colleges in the area and the high schools are included. Up to now, the associations have attempted to achieve

their objectives usually through late afternoon and evening meetings. Definite plans are under way for next fall to hold conferences of these schools during week ends at some camp. In general, the policy of team representation from each school is followed with a team consisting of both administrators and teachers. The opportunity for exchange of experience concerning various curriculum projects provided by these meetings constitutes one of the most wholesome and constructive aspects of the Secondary School-College Agreement Program. It is hoped that these regional associations will in time be able to publish, either themselves or through other channels, accounts of their various projects. Such publication will enable still wider sharing of experience and may provide stimulation and suggestions to other areas.

It is appropriate to indicate here that in the early months the state committee was under considerable pressure to indicate specific situations which could be construed as meeting the four conditions of the Agreement. The state committee has resisted these pressures believing that it will be far wiser to encourage the publication of how particular schools are attacking their curriculum and guidance problems rather than to attempt to master-mind any one or more patterns that would be imposed upon or used uncritically by the participating schools. The meetings of the regional associations by their very nature emphasize the fact that each school should be a community school with a program adapted to the peculiar needs of its particular group of students and parents. The meetings also provide an excellent opportunity for the state committee and committees of the Michigan Curriculum Program to exercise constructive leadership in a permissive atmosphere with attention focused primarily upon the local curriculum needs. They present the challenge to the Department of Public Instruction, the state teacher-training institutions, and all other curriculum consultants to operate in a manner that will not only raise the level of the poorest and weakest schools and teachers but will also provide assistance to the best and most active schools in the state.

No serious attempt has been made as yet to provide any financial support for these regional associations. Both the colleges and the Department of Public Instruction have made available their staff resources to these groups. The Metropolitan Detroit Association of College Agreement Schools has, in addition, the services of the executive secretary of the Metropolitan Detroit Bureau of Co-operative School Studies. Each school, of course, has subsidized this venture to the extent that it has encouraged attendance at conferences on

school time by its staff. Many schools have also reimbursed their teachers for expenses incidental to these meetings. It may be that some source of additional financing will have to be sought in the future. At the moment this is not a paramount need.

SIGNIFICANCE OF THE AGREEMENT TO LOCAL SCHOOLS

The very fact that the schools have voluntarily banded themselves into area associations as a result of the Secondary School-College Agreement is in itself an eloquent testimonial that the Agreement has already proved to be a powerful catalyst for the release of local leadership in curriculum study. Additional evidence is provided by the response made by a number of the schools to a letter sent to them requesting specific comment on the significance of the Agreement to them. A number of these responses follows:

Wayne High School

"When Wayne High School became signatory to the College Agreement, the faculty realized that they had taken upon themselves the responsibility of revising the curriculum and augmenting the guidance services of the high school. Freeing them from following the rigid pattern of class sequences, the College Agreement provided the opportunity and impetus to revise the curriculum in terms of the students' needs.

"In developing a co-operatively planned curriculum, students, parents, teachers, and many consumers were asked, 'What experiences should boys and girls have in high school?' Approximately 1,000 students and 1,000 parents filled out questionnaires. Fathers and mothers assembled at the high school to offer suggestions for revision of the curriculum. Twenty industrial men from the neighboring community conferred with school administrators and gave their recommendations. Forty-five faculty and administrative members of the high school convened to have their voices heard in the revision. These results were collected by a joint committee of parents and teachers who then reorganized the curriculum accordingly and submitted it to the general faculty for discussion.

"We have eliminated English, general science, and social science as course titles and have added basic communications. All freshmen and sophomores are to be enrolled in this two-hour course, the purpose of which is to help each boy and girl read better, speak better, write better, listen better, and observe better. Running through each of these activities will be the general objective of gradual improvement in critical thinking. This longer period will give more time for individual student guidance. The areas of study are to be

determined through teacher-pupil planning. Music, art, homemaking, shop, and health teachers will be resource persons.

"A unique factor in all of the discussions held during this planning period is that not once was this question raised: 'Will the colleges accept this for entrance?' If the College Agreement had not been in existence at the time of this curriculum revision, several features of the reorganized course of study could not have been possible. The very name of our new course, basic communications, would not have been acceptable for college entrance. Eliminating English, general science, and social science, as both students and parents have requested, from the freshman curriculum could not have been considered. A regular function of this basic communications class is guidance which will be the responsibility of twelve teachers for about seventy-five students each.

"This co-operatively planned revision seems to be the best plan at present to all concerned. Instituting a program as we have described would have been impossible without the freedom in planning which the College Agreement provides."⁹

Denby High School

The report received from Denby High School, Detroit, notes that the Agreement has been used very infrequently to get students into college, in part because only about fifteen per cent of Denby graduates enter college and in part because much of the experimental work has been recorded and reported under traditional course designation. Nevertheless, "right from its inception the Agreement became a very potent influence in the thinking of those teachers most concerned with curriculum planning. It permitted these people to approach the curriculum problem with freedom to forget the subject-matter pattern prescribed for college entrance purposes and consider rather the particular characteristics and needs of Denby students and the kinds of experiences which would best meet these needs.

"While thinking and planning of this type had been in evidence before the College Agreement, it had been largely (though not exclusively) in connection with those pupils whose aptitudes and interests did not place them in the college group. The Agreement removed this restriction and gave freedom to consider all of the curriculum rather than just a part.

"This is best illustrated in the case of the development of the core curriculum. The task which was set for the group which initiated this program was to discover 'what constitutes education at the ninth-grade level.' In its present

⁹ Prepared by Miss Sada Gulbankian, Teacher of Basic Communications, and Miss Ruth Boot, Associate Principal, Wayne High School, Wayne, Michigan.

form, the core program places its major emphasis not on subject matter but on growth and development in the skills of thinking and working together and on the techniques for solving personal and group problems.

"In the development of this program, the College Agreement first of all gave freedom and encouragement to the teachers themselves, permitting them to do what seemed to be quite radical thinking without too much fear and trembling; and secondly, it was a strong bulwark against the fears of skeptical colleagues and the questionings of parents and students.

"So essential a place does the Agreement hold in this program that, when the termination of the original twelve-year Agreement was approaching, the core teachers were unanimously of the opinion that it would be extremely unwise, if not altogether impossible, for them to continue with the experiment if a new Agreement were not consummated.

"This, then, has been the contribution of the Agreement: Freedom from the controlling domination of a college pattern (no matter how little this domination may be intended) with consequent greater emphasis on the real and particular needs of Denby students and security in the exercise of this freedom for teachers, students, and parents."¹⁰

River Rouge High School

In a report prepared by the staff of the River Rouge High School in May, 1948, the following statements were made:

"A new freedom is offered under the terms of the Secondary School-College Agreement. Our staff feels that they have an opportunity to take a more realistic view of the school program in terms of the interest and needs of all of the students. The curriculum has become more elastic. Changes are effected more easily. Community resources are used more extensively. Several of our staff members have been active in the state curriculum conferences."¹¹

The report also contains specific descriptions of particular changes that have been made in the curriculum since the adoption of the agreement. For instance, the following new courses have been added: home planning, boys' camp cooking, international relations, school government, sociology, retail merchandising, office dictaphone, business training, welding, girls' shop, general language, radio speech, refresher mathematics, and driver training. In addition, a new constitution has been developed by the school government group. Also the Guidance Council of the River Rouge Public Schools has

¹⁰ From a report submitted by Fred J. Mulder, Head of the Department of Mathematics and in charge of experimental programs, Denby High School, Detroit, Michigan.

¹¹ From a report sent in by Russell Ishbister, formerly Principal of the River Rouge High School, now Superintendent of Center Line Public Schools.

dealt with a tremendous number of problems during its periodic meetings throughout the school year. These problems indicate a wholesome concern with the total guidance activity involving all teachers as well as utilizing the services of specialists for certain specific services.

Midland High School

Principal Mahlen Moore of Midland High School makes this comment about the Agreement: "To the larger high school there is one big advantage that we have made use of and will continue to do so. We find that one or two per cent of our students each year find that the financial status of the family has suddenly changed for the better and it is possible for this student to attend college. Previously, the student had taken some kind of a vocational course to prepare himself for job opportunities on leaving high school. If this student in question is one of college caliber as far as ability is concerned, we now have a way of enrolling him in a college."¹²

Redford Union High School

Additional comment on this point is offered by M. G. Burdick, Principal, Redford Union High School, Detroit:

"About two years ago I had the question of college entrance brought to my attention in a very clear way. I had a student who ranked fourth in a class of 103 and had the desire to be a social science teacher. I recommended her for a state teacher training college where she was refused, although she had 190 hours credit. She had sequences in commercial, English, social science, and homemaking. They replied if our high school were acceptable to the College Agreement Committee, they would accept her. A year later we were accepted, but a good candidate had been lost to the teaching profession." He goes on to make this observation about the value of the Agreement:

"We are particularly pleased the way that many teachers have been revitalized in making their courses and their thinking to the present-day needs of the students. This has been accomplished by means of teacher-meeting conferences with other schools in our area working on the College Agreement plan.

"At one of our first meetings this fall, we plan to have several students exchange with Plymouth High School to meet with our teachers at a regular teachers' meeting to explain what they expect from teachers in the way of training. We use students from other schools similar to ours so they will feel free to offer suggestions on improvement in curriculum."¹³

¹² From a report sent in by Mahlen Moore, Principal, Midland High School.

¹³ From a report sent in by M. G. Burdick, Principal, Redford Union High School, Detroit.

Battle Creek Senior High School

A more extended discussion of the value of the Agreement is provided by Paul M. Halverson, principal of the Battle Creek Senior High School.

"The Michigan Secondary School-College Agreement is serving to stimulate the teaching staff and administration of Battle Creek Senior High School to provide a more significant and purposeful educational experience for all the boys and girls of this city. Our school for a number of years has concerned itself with various phases which are part of the Agreement, such as keeping adequate personnel data, conducting curriculum research, providing for follow-up of former pupils, and giving occupational information and orientation. However, until we became members of the Agreement, our activities along these lines seemed to lack co-ordination and purpose, at least in a measure, which made activities in these areas significant and meaningful enough to reach numbers of school personnel and the community.

"Our entire school system is becoming more conscious of the need for more adequate personal files about each student. We have had such a file for a number of years, but during the past year we have revised it completely in grades one through twelve. We are also finding that more teachers are making use of the information in these files as they become more interested in students and related problems of educational planning for these students.

"Our curriculum program is in a sense independent of the Secondary School-College Agreement; by that, I mean that the Horace Mann-Lincoln Institute program in the high school would be carried on whether we were members of the Agreement or not. However, the freedom and flexibility which is afforded by the Agreement has allowed us to experiment with some innovations in curriculum; for example, a basic living course, required of all sophomores, which we will have for its second year in 1948-49. We are also looking ahead to next year in our English and social studies departments for some rather fundamental changes in curriculum organization and methodology.

"We have had follow-up studies of drop-outs and graduates for a number of years, but we are now set up on a definite schedule for an annual follow-up of graduates and drop-outs. In the follow-up of graduates, we are not only interested in their success in college academically, but we are also asking for information about their participation in extracurricular activities.

"We are expanding our program of occupational information in several ways; for example, vocations day, basic living, and possibly some short-term units in social studies in the junior and senior year. Our counselors are assum-

ing increasing responsibility for giving adequate information to students regarding the nature of requirements of certain occupations and specialized courses. Finally, we have designated one member of the staff as Director of Counseling and Research who will attempt to head up, under the supervision of the principal, all aspects of the College Agreement and its implications for the high school here in Battle Creek."¹⁴

Busch High School

The significance of the Agreement from the point of view of the teacher is well stated in the report sent in by Busch High School, Center Line.

"One of the chief values of the new College Agreement is that it liberates our school to experiment in curriculum revision by offering courses not possible in a small school when college-agreement sequences have to be met. Since about eighty-five per cent of our students are noncollege preparatory, this is especially important in Center Line.

"In the summer of 1947, a team of teachers joined a curriculum workshop at Wayne University to work on local school problems. As a result new experimental elective classes in combined English and social studies were offered last year on the ninth-, tenth-, and eleventh-grade levels. These classes were organized through pupil-teacher planning on the basis of student interest. Such things as juvenile delinquency, intercultural relations, national defense, occupations, travel, and local school problems were studied. The second semester an elective course called "voice drama" was offered on all grade levels. Every member of the class participated in one or more of the three public recitals by singing solos or giving readings.

"The College Agreement has made us teachers more aware of our responsibility to the student and to the community. We feel that it is a challenge to us. We can't ignore pupils' needs by *passing the buck*, as far as college requirements are concerned.

"Our consideration of the significance of the College Agreement for us in Center Line points the way to problems we need to work on in the future. Two of these stand out in our group thinking at present. *First* is the need of developing a technique for holding school-community discussions. We have agreed that teachers must provide the leadership for this purpose. We are anxious to avoid any pressure-group type of organization and are considering how best to get co-operation in planning curriculum changes that will serve the community needs. Our newly initiated follow-up study of former students will

¹⁴ From a statement sent in by Paul M. Halverson, Principal, Battle Creek Senior High School.

help, we hope. *Second* is the need to improve our guidance program. We have under consideration the possibility of forming a guidance study group with an expert for the coming school year. We need to learn more about techniques for personal and social guidance, as well as occupational.

"We feel that the College Agreement has been an important factor in stimulating professional growth on the part of teachers and that, as a result, we are improving our school."¹⁵

Godwin Heights High School

Mrs. Gladys Saur, Principal of the Godwin Heights High School, Grand Rapids, makes this comment on the importance of the Agreement to them:

"Since at least ninety per cent of our boys and girls do not go on to college, it has proved a solution to the fitting of our students for a better preparation in living and adjusting as they enter adult life."¹⁶

Superintendent E. D. Kennedy of Rochester, Michigan, writes that, while the Rochester High School had started a program of curriculum study long before it became a participating school in the Agreement and a member of the Metropolitan Detroit Association of College Agreement Schools, "the Association, however, has given us greater impetus to carry on and add new activities to an already progressive and alert school." In his report of their curriculum activities, Mr. Kennedy includes the following:

- "1. A curriculum study met weekly throughout the entire year, with faculty, students, and lay people participating under the leadership of Dr. Earl Kelley of Wayne University.
- "2. The English Committee of the curriculum study made recommendations that are being carried out this next year in the schedule of classes: (a) class in drama, (b) class in journalism, and (c) core or unified studies in ninth-grade English and orientation of social studies.
- "3. Another accomplishment of the curriculum study was noted in particular, that of changed attitudes and open-minded outlooks on the part of faculty members toward the students, their problems, and their needs. It was a healthy change for the teachers to be able to sit around a table with students and discuss the mutual problems and plan together instructional goals and realize that a large percentage of the students do not go to college and, therefore, have a noncollege vocational outlook.

¹⁵ From a statement by Miss Ruth White, teacher, Busch High School, Center Line.

¹⁶ From statement sent in by Mrs. Gladys Saur, Principal of the Godwin Heights High School, Grand Rapids.

- "4. The present one-period course in social living will be increased, and two courses, meeting at two different periods, will be offered to allow more students to take the course.
- "5. The members of the English department will continue to study the need for greater emphasis in English regarding spelling, reading, and writing as basic skills for successful living.
- "6. Another curriculum change recommended by another committee in the curriculum study was the offering of two languages instead of only Latin.
- "7. A continued emphasis will be made to inform the students of the benefits of the club program. This year over seventy-five per cent of the students participated in thirty clubs or activities in addition to the athletic program.
- "8. The expansion and improvement of the Sponsor Room-Student Council Program was recommended to provide a more effective program and allow more democratic participation in student government."¹⁷

SUMMARY

These descriptions contain ample evidence that the Secondary School-College Agreement in Michigan has provided the stimulus for a great many promising activities at the local level that, in the aggregate, point toward the general improvement of instruction in secondary schools throughout the state. It is in this facilitation of the development of functional local programs that the principal significance of the Secondary School-College Agreement lies rather than in the fact that it provides an alternate method for securing admission to college. At the same time, any school that assumes seriously its obligations under the Agreement will be in the position of providing each college with far more comprehensive and significant information about each applicant than has been customary in the past. Furthermore, the whole program provides a clear demonstration of the fact that the relinquishing of the untenable assumption that any college or any state educational authority knows exactly what is best for each high school need not result in chaos nor in frustrated, helpless fumbling by the local school. Here is one way of both releasing and harnessing the energies of local communities in a co-operative attack upon the numerous and difficult problems of developing a truly democratic educational program in our American democratic society.

¹⁷ From a statement submitted by Mr. E. D. Kennedy, Superintendent of Schools, Rochester, Michigan.

A Unit of Work on the American Newspaper

C. C. HARVEY

I. OVERVIEW

THE newspaper is a means of communication, education, and entertainment widely used in present-day American life. Most citizens are probably influenced by it. Children, youth, and adults are at least superficially acquainted with it, and read those parts in which they are most interested.

Each citizen in a democracy, so far as possible, should be informed on current affairs and problems. Intelligent reading of the newspaper is essential in keeping informed on the problems and issues, changes, and events of civilization. The school, particularly the secondary school, has a definite responsibility to help students develop understandings, appreciations, attitudes, and abilities in regard to the newspaper.

Witty and Kopel state:¹

Newspapers are read almost universally. . . . And most children, boys in somewhat larger numbers than girls, turn habitually to the comic strips and to the sports section.

Although girls exhibit a greater diversity of interest, mentioning more sections of the paper than boys, their reading, too, is restricted and somewhat stereotyped. In the papers, children scan sensational accounts of crime and sex, the espousal of questionable ideals, and distorted presentation of economic and political events.

This condition should be fully recognized by the school, which should endeavor to help children become critical, fact-finding, and truth-seeking in their newspaper reading. . . .

This unit of work is designed to help students and teachers make the study of the newspaper a broadened and enriched social experience. The chief aim is to make pupils conscious of what they can get from the newspaper and to start them toward becoming intelligent readers of the newspaper.

¹Witty, Paul, and Kopel, David. *Reading and the Educative Process*. New York: Ginn and Co. 1939. pp. 29-30.

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In difficulty of reading and comprehension, the average newspaper is about that of the seventh-grade level. It is suggested that this unit be studied in one of the senior high-school years, possibly the eleventh grade, or junior year, of high school. Due to its layout and the nature of its material, the newspaper could be adapted for study at varying grade levels. The unit might profitably be brought down as low as the seventh grade. It might be used in connection with a course in English, social studies, or journalism.

The general plan of the unit is to start with activities built around an examination and discussion of current newspapers. Next are activities based on the origin and historical development of the newspaper. Then an examination is made of the scientific and mechanical inventions on which it depends, how it serves society, how it is organized, how it gets its news, *etc.* Last is a somewhat "philosophical" discussion of the newspaper which should prove stimulating. Follow-up activities in the form of an exhibit, an assembly program, *etc.*, are indicated. Of course, there should be a maximum of pupil-teacher planning in carrying out the unit.

II. UNDERSTANDINGS TO BE DEVELOPED

1. The origin and growth of the newspaper has been related closely to modern history.
2. The newspaper gives an account of the changes taking place all the time in the community, the nation, and the world.
3. Almost all those who read, use the newspaper as a source of information and/or for entertainment.
4. By learning to read the newspaper intelligently, one can increase his knowledge of citizenship, geography, current history, literature, science, and many other things.
5. The newspaper, like so much of modern life, is dependent upon invention and mechanical improvements.
6. Gathering the news and making the newspaper are highly organized businesses which require the co-operation of a large number of people.
7. Freedom of the press, based on its responsibility to society, is very important in a democracy.

III. APPRECIATIONS AND ATTITUDES TO BE DEVELOPED

1. An appreciation of the contributions the newspaper has and is making to civilization.
2. An appreciation of the services which are and can be rendered by a free press in a democracy.

3. An appreciation of how a good newspaper serves the community.
4. An appreciation of the views and opinions of others.
5. An appreciation of the work of those who have been leaders in the development of the modern newspaper, including the mechanical and scientific inventions on which it is dependent.
6. An appreciation of the part which the newspaper can play in promoting national unity and international understanding and good will.
7. An attitude of critical thinking.
8. An attitude of intelligence and fair-mindedness toward civic problems and conditions.
9. An attitude of wanting to know the truth—of seeing all sides of issues.
10. An attitude of consideration, discussion, and evaluation before forming conclusions, and of holding most conclusions as tentative.
11. An attitude of wanting to know different points of view on current problems.
12. An attitude of following changing institutions and trends in society.
13. An attitude of protection toward the democratic principle of free expression of changing points of view.
14. An attitude of selection, inquisitiveness, and discrimination in reading the newspaper.
15. An attitude of reading something in the newspaper besides comics or sports.

IV. ABILITIES TO BE DEVELOPED

1. Ability to read the newspaper with increased skill and understanding.
2. Ability to enjoy the newspaper in everyday life.
3. Ability to read and think critically.
4. Ability to understand the domestic problems of the United States and alternatives for their solution.
5. Ability to understand world problems.
6. Ability to plan and co-operate with fellow students.
7. Ability to recognize the significant current problems in the community.
8. Ability to recognize propaganda in newspapers and other periodicals.
9. Ability to evaluate a newspaper and exercise judgment in discriminating between the important and the unimportant.
10. Ability to use reference materials intelligently.

11. Ability in learning how to select material for a report.
12. Ability to see the inter-relationship of the entire world.
13. Ability to find significant material in the newspaper on almost any topic of current interest.
14. Ability to locate on maps places mentioned in newspapers.
15. Ability to select material for and arrange an attractive bulletin-board exhibit.
16. Ability to make illustrations contribute to the understanding of reading materials.
17. Ability to see time and place relationships.
18. Ability to use charts, graphs, tables, etc.
19. Ability to use the interview, take notes, etc.

V. POSSIBLE APPROACHES

1. Show a film on newspapers or journalism. Examples are: *Brazil Gets the News*, *Journalism*, *Story That Couldn't Be Printed*, and *Trees to Tribunes*.

2. Let the students bring in copies of the newspapers received and read in their homes. Make these the basis for a general discussion of what they know about newspapers. Have them write down the parts of the paper which they like best. Rank the parts of the paper most popular with the group. For example: comics, sports, photographic parts, news, etc.

3. Make a survey of newspaper reading in the community. A questionnaire could be prepared for surveying newspaper reading in homes, at school, and in public libraries; sale of newspapers at newsstands, subscription by mail, and delivered by newsboys; etc.

4. Get the class to make a "bulletin-board newspaper." This would consist of a bulletin-board display of school, local, state, national, and international news and pictures selected by students. Some of these might be written and illustrated by class members.

5. Arrange for pupils to write and get copies of some of the well-known newspapers. For example, copies of *The New York Times*, *The Christian Science Monitor*, *The Washington Post*, *The Baltimore Sun*, and a local daily might be secured. These could be discussed, compared, etc. If some member of the class can secure a copy of an English or some other foreign newspaper, it could be used for contrast with American papers.

6. Take the class on a trip to a newspaper plant. By letting the students go through a newspaper plant, seeing a paper in production, and hearing newspapermen and printers discuss their work, the class will be interested in learning more about newspapers.

VI. ACTIVITIES

- What news is found on the front page of a newspaper?
- Using the papers students have brought for study, have them classify the news stories on the front page under: (1) local news, (2) state news, (3) national news, and (4) international news. Let students select examples of stories from each classification to place on the class bulletin-board newspaper to be kept during the unit.
- How are the news stories arranged on the front page?
- By questions, draw out these facts: (1) the most important news occupies the front page; (2) the most timely and important story is found in the extreme right-hand column.
- What kind of stories and other materials are found on the other pages?
- Classify other pages under: (1) editorials, (2) sports, (3) cartoons and comics, (4) news, (5) advertisements, and (6) other features. Select one of each for use on the class bulletin-board newspaper.
- What is the difference between news stories and editorials?
- By discussion and questions, bring out: (1) the purpose of a news story is to give an accurate report of a timely and important event; (2) an editorial attempts to explain or interpret some event and to influence the thinking of readers. Let students try writing a news article on some school topic and an editorial expressing their views on the same topic. Use these on the bulletin-board paper.
- What are the chief parts of a news article?
- Point out to students examples of the following: (1) headings, (2) subheadings, (3) lead or first paragraph, and (4) other paragraphs.
- What is the importance of the lead or first paragraph in a news article?
- At this point, students will probably ask questions which will bring up: (1) the difference in the structure of a news story and a magazine article, (2) the who, what, where, when, and why in the lead paragraph, (3) the meaning of UP, AP, etc., at the beginning of many news stories, and (4) how news is gathered. The last two should be left for later discussion.
- Of what value is the newspaper in providing entertainment and supplying us information about leisure-time activities?
- Examine and discuss parts of the paper which deal with these topics, emphasizing the part they play in the use of leisure time: (1) sports, (2) comics and cartoons, and (3) various other features. Select samples for use on the class bulletin-board paper.

Examination and discussion of comic strips.

Study the comic strips from the point of view of: (1) popularity, (2) evaluation, and (3) desirable qualities. Discuss the qualities which give the comic strips their great appeal. Draw some strips for the class bulletin-board newspaper.

Examination and discussion of other features.

Select various other features for the class bulletin-board newspaper; such as: (1) crossword puzzles, (2) jokes, (3) columns, (4) health articles, (5) recipes, (6) styles, (7) junior page, etc.

What are some of the most important events connected with the historical development of the newspaper?

From their supplementary reading, let students give oral reports on such topics as: (1) Pekin Gazette (1340), (2) Roman Placards, (3) French Novelists, (4) Invention of printing (1452), (5) Italian printed sheet (1566), (6) "Das Frankfurter" Journal in Germany (1615), (7) "Gazette de France" (1631), (8) First real English newspaper (1704), (9) Work of Daniel Defoe, and (10) First English Daily (1709)

What are some events connected with early newspapers in America? Who was the first great American journalist?

Continue supplementary reading followed by reports on: (1) early Boston sheet (1690), (2) Boston News Letter (1704), (3) suppression of Colonial papers, and (4) early journalist, e.g., Benjamin Franklin. Select pictures connected with early newspapers to put on class bulletin-board paper. Search to see if copies of old newspapers can be found in the community which may be borrowed and used in studying the unit.

What part did newspapers play in the struggle for freedom before and during the American Revolution?

Discuss the influence of Benjamin Franklin, Thomas Paine, etc., during the American Revolution. Write articles about the part played by newspapers and news letters in the American Revolution.

What incident established the principle of freedom of the press in the colonies? What does the Constitution say about freedom of the press?

Study the Peter Zenger case (1735) which established the principle of freedom of the press in the Colonies. Read the Bill of Rights in the Constitution and find out what is said about freedom of the press. Write articles on the importance of freedom of the press for the class bulletin-board paper.

How is the newspaper dependent upon invention and mechanical improvements?

Continue supplementary reading, followed by reports and discussion on such topics as: (1) Early methods of composition; (2) Gutenberg's press and how it changed history; (3) William Claxton, the first English printer; (4) The Linotype machine; (5) The Monotype machine; and (6) News photography. At this point, a trip through the local print shop or a talk by a printer would be very valuable and stimulating.

What inventions have made rapid news service possible?

In connection with rapid news service, discuss use of: (1) telegraph, (2) cable, (3) radio, (4) telephone, (5) teletype, (6) wirephoto, *etc.*

How does a newspaper get its news?

Students study the work of staff editors and reporters. An experienced reporter or editor is invited to talk to the class.

Could the modern newspaper exist without news-gathering agencies?

Students continue to consult references and prepare reports on the history and activities of news-gathering agencies, *e.g.*, The Associated Press, The United Press, The International News Service, and The National Editorial Association. Some samples of news articles gathered from different parts of the world are selected for the class bulletin-board newspaper.

What are the leading news-gathering agencies which serve American newspapers?

Students gather information on the source, production of, and quantities of paper, ink, and other materials used in making the newspaper. This topic as well as many others connects the study of the newspaper with geography, industry, science, *etc.*

How do newspapers get the ink and paper which are used in such large quantities?

How much does it cost to produce a daily newspaper? From where does the money come?

Students make a study of the cost of publishing a modern daily newspaper, and the sources of income, *e.g.*, sale of papers and advertising.

What are the characteristics of a good advertisement?

Students discuss the characteristics of a good advertisement, how advertising is regulated by law, and whether a good advertisement should contain news. A variety of different kinds of advertisements is selected for the class bulletin-board newspaper.

How is a school newspaper like a public newspaper?

What can you find out about journalism in American schools? How is the school like the community?

Students study the school newspaper and contrast it with public newspapers. A collection of papers published by nearby schools are studied. Letters are written to the National Scholastic Press Association, the Columbia Scholastic Association, and to Quill and Scroll to find out about the school press throughout the country.

Publishing a page of school news in the local newspaper.

Students decide to try their skill at newspaper work. First they write some articles on activities for the school paper, then they go out and interview various persons in the community, and finally they decide to get the editor of the local paper to let them edit a special page of school news in one issue. This calls for organization, the selection of news, and preparation of copy for the printer.

An exhibit of materials growing out of the unit and an assembly program on the theme "Intelligent Reading of the Newspaper."

In concluding the unit, the class decides to spend a few days on some other special activities and in discussing ideas and questions relating to the newspaper which they have been thinking about. They decide to let others know about what has been accomplished in the unit by an exhibit of the best materials developed and an assembly program on the topic "Intelligent Reading of the Newspaper."

A "philosophical" discussion of the newspaper and its relation to society.

The last few days on the unit are spent in what may be called a "philosophical" study of the newspaper. The following questions and quotations are used to stimulate thinking and discussion:

Questions

What is propaganda? How can we learn to guard against it in reading newspapers?

How does the newspaper influence public opinion? What surveys of public opinion are reported regularly in newspapers?

What can one learn about citizenship from newspapers? What can one learn about science, literature, etc., from newspapers?

Has radio caused changes in our newspapers? Is television likely to bring changes?

Should news of crime be published? Are there newspapers which do not publish news of crime?

What can newspapers do in working toward international understanding and peace among all nations?

How can newspapers work toward better relations among citizens of this country? Are there many examples of newspapers trying to promote better inter-racial understanding and good will?

How do American newspapers differ from newspapers of other lands?

What are the differences in newspapers in democratic and nondemocratic countries?

About how many newspapers are there in the world? What per cent of these are found in America? How can this fact be explained?

What are the chief contributions of newspapers to American life?

How do newspapers help to keep a country united?

How does a newspaper serve its community?

An important event may happen in Australia or some other distant land and a few hours later an account of it be in your newspaper. Can you tell all the steps which must be taken, the people and instruments involved, etc., before the story gets into your daily paper?

Quotations

"Congress shall make no law abridging the freedom of speech or of the press."
—Constitution of the United States, Amendment I, December 15, 1791.

"Were it left to me to decide whether we should have a government without newspapers or newspapers without government, I should not hesitate a moment to prefer the latter."—Thomas Jefferson: Letter to Edward Carrington, January 16, 1787.

"The design of this paper is to diffuse among the people correct information in all interesting subjects; to inculcate just principles in religion, morals and politics; and to cultivate a taste for sound literature."—Salutatory of *The New York Evening Post*, November 15, 1801.

"Newspapers always excite curiosity. No one ever lays one down without a feeling of disappointment."—Charles Lamb: *Detached Thoughts on Books and Reading*, 1822 (*London Magazine*, July).

"What is to prevent a daily newspaper from being made the greatest organ of social life? Books have had their day—the theaters have had their day—the temple of religion has had its day. A newspaper can be made to take the lead of all these in the great movement of human thought and of human civilization."—James Gordon Bennett: Editorial in *New York Herald*, August 19, 1836.

"Light for all."—Motto of *The Baltimore Sun*.

"The freedom of the press is one of the great bulwarks of liberty and can never be restrained but by despotic governments."—George Mason: *The Virginia Declaration of Rights*, 1776.

"Our liberty depends upon the freedom of the press, and that cannot be limited without being lost."—Thomas Jefferson: Letter to James Currie, 1786.

"Liberty of the press is essential to freedom of the state."—Constitution of Massachusetts, 1780.

"When the press is free and every man able to read, all is safe."—Thomas Jefferson: Letter to Charles Yancey, 1816.

"Despotism can no more exist in a nation until the liberty of the press is destroyed, than the night can happen before the sun is set."—C. C. Cotton: *Lacon*, 1820.

"A free press stands as one of the great interpreters between the government and the people. To allow it to be fettered is to fetter ourselves."—Decision of U. S. Supreme Court in *Grosjen vs. The American Press Co.*, 1936.

"Freedom of conscience, of education, of speech, of assembly are among the very fundamentals of democracy and all of them would be nullified should freedom of the press ever be successfully challenged."—Franklin D. Roosevelt: Letter to W. N. Hardy, September 4, 1940.

"A fourth estate, of able editors, springs up."—Thomas Carlyle: *The French Revolution*, II, 1837.

"Every school boy and school girl who has arrived at the age of reflection ought

to know something of the history of the art of printing."—Horace Mann: *The Common School Journal*, February, 1842.

"I fear three newspapers more than a hundred thousand bayonets."—Napoleon I.

VII. EVALUATION OF UNIT

It is obvious that many of the objectives set up for this unit are rather intangible and how well they are achieved cannot be measured easily. Much of the evaluation must be in terms of the teacher's observation of changes brought about in behavior of students, increase in their skills and abilities, and other factors. The following method of evaluating the results of the unit seems appropriate:

1. Do the students understand that . . . ? (Refer to "Understandings to be developed," Part II).
2. Have the students grown in . . . ? (Refer to "Appreciations and attitudes to be developed," Part III).
3. Have the students developed . . . ? (Refer to "Abilities to be developed," Part IV).
4. Have the students shown . . . ? (Satisfactory achievement in the factual tests given at the end of the unit).

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IX. OTHER INSTRUCTIONAL AIDS

In this unit the students and teacher should draw freely upon the materials of the community. If altogether possible the class should visit a newspaper office and later take a trip through the plant where the newspaper is printed. Actual newspapers should be used in the unit, both as sources of information and for laboratory purposes.

It would be valuable to have for use issues of some of the magazines published for student journalists and student leaders. The leading ones are: *Student Life*, National Association of Secondary-School Principals, National Education Association, Washington 6, D. C.; *The Scholastic Editor*, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minnesota; *Quill and Scroll*, Northwestern University, Chicago, Illinois; and *The School Press Review*, Columbia University, New York, N. Y.

The World Book Encyclopedia (W. F. Quarrie Co.), *Compton's Pictured Encyclopedia* (F. E. Compton Co.), and *Encyclopedia Britannica, Jr.* (University of Chicago Press), Douglas McMurtie's *The Story of Printing and Bookmaking* (Covici Friede), and James Kincaid's *Press Photography* (Photographic Publishing Co.) would prove valuable for references.

These magazine articles might prove helpful, especially for the teacher:

"Unit on Reading of Newspapers: A Group Project" by R. O. Billet. *English Journal*, 31:15-31, January 1942.

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Planning and Publishing a School Newspaper

MRS. HAZEL PULLMAN

So you want to start a newspaper in your high school? It's high time if you have not had one before. No other educational project can advance the interests of school and community as well as the school paper. No other medium can bind the two together so closely as the weekly, monthly, or bi-monthly publication.

First of all, don't let it be merely an extracurricular activity. Journalism should be offered as a credit either in fourth-year English or as one of the social sciences. A number of schools have a preparatory course in the junior year followed by actual experience in the senior year. This last course may again be divided so that some may be on the annual staff.

The majority of schools offer only the one year in which the students both learn and put out the paper in the first semester. The second term is more of the same with perhaps the added duties of a yearbook. We have tried both ways. From necessity we have followed the latter plan the past few years. You can have a good paper by either method. Most of the students can acquire the elementary principles of the writing of a news story in the first six weeks. They can put out quite a presentable paper in the second or third week of school.

SELECTING THE ADVISER

Perhaps your first difficulty is in securing a teacher for the journalism class. Of course there is one of the English instructors or even a commercial teacher to whom you may assign this duty. Undoubtedly she should have an English major and at least five hours of journalism. That is where you are getting into trouble. Most schools of journalism are training their graduates to go into newspaper, magazine, advertising, or radio work. They do not allow

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both a journalism and an education major at the same time or on the same degree. In other words, according to a survey made by the National Association of Journalism Directors, the universities are not supplying journalism teachers to take the place of the many instructors who are either retiring or going into some other profession.

Maybe you can tell that English teacher to go to a summer school and take the required hours, or she might attend one of the journalism workshops sponsored by NAJD and like organizations. There was an excellent one at the University of Minnesota in 1947, another in California in 1948. Generally a supervisor's course is the best answer to the problem of training. If she has not already done so, advise her to take courses in interpretation of the school to the public or one considering community relations. It would certainly be a great advantage if she had a reasonable knowledge of photography.

This supervisor of publications whom you choose should have a personality which will permit the student to use his initiative constructively, but at the same time recognize the need for a central authority. Practical experience on a newspaper or in writing for magazines would also be a definite qualification for this sponsor of the school paper, but there again those possessing it are few and far between. You, as an administrator, will want her to have a stimulating attitude toward all journalistic endeavors and try to inspire students to do their best. Therefore, don't ask her to teach more than three other English classes, for she will spend more time on the newspaper than on all the other classes put together. An extra period a day should be provided for a journalism laboratory.

FORMING THE CLASS GROUP

As for the class itself you will find that a limit of twenty is the best number. This is conducive to competition but not too many for the adviser to give individual instruction; and I mean individual instruction because each will be working on a different article or problem.

Whether the student should meet a certain grade requirement or average in English is another question. In our own school, anyone who wants to may take journalism if he has completed his other three years of English. But most of those who do not do well in composition have no desire to enroll in journalism. A few do come in for no other reason than that an older brother or sister used to be on the staff, or they want to be with a certain group of friends, or they like the idea of working on the business end.

Most of them are enthusiastic about some phases of the publication, and, because it is creative, they really enjoy the work. Someone with a mathemat-

ical mind may devise some time-saving method in bookkeeping or circulation. Another may develop a real flair for headline writing. Further qualifications of the student journalist will be discussed later in this article.

PROVIDING BUILDING SPACE

Now that you have secured a teacher and a group of boys and girls who want to write for the school paper, the next consideration is the room for them to use. The minimum equipment should include at least two typewriters, one unabridged dictionary, a thesaurus, style sheets, a journalism reference library, filing cases, a catalogue for cuts, and a school camera. After the first year, you ought to have bound files of the paper. As time goes on, you may add such items as slot tables instead of the traditional desks, movable bulletin boards, a "postoffice" for papers received from other schools made available for everyone, cabinets that will give each staff member a place for his own material, supply cupboards with compartments plainly marked, separate rooms for conferences, a telephone, a city directory, an alumni file with cross index, and class schedules of everyone in school.

Whether one room or several, locate the journalism department on the main floor of the building where traffic is heaviest and school life is at the fullest. Some schools make the mistake of consigning the journalists to the attic or a remote part of the building.

FINANCING THE PAPER

The average school paper is printed commercially. The adviser will have to deal with an outside printer. There will be contracts to be signed and agreements made and kept. The rivalry of other papers in the town may keep the school paper from charging enough for advertising to pay for the printing. A great many businessmen consider that their buying of space is a charity gesture. It is up to the students to see that the merchants profit by their advertising in actual sales or in building up a future market for potential buyers. Surveys may be made and the results sent to the businessmen showing the trend of student buying.

Personally, I am all for advertising not so much for the income as for education along those lines for the student. They, as solicitors, learn to meet the public; they learn to distinguish between advertising and publicity; they learn about the value of certain products. A great help along this line is for the students themselves to write the ads. The copy may not be done so skillfully, but at least it will be read by teen-agers and their parents and that is what the merchant wants.

Too much advertising may take away space that should be devoted to news, but you are fortunate if there is a happy medium. The only other source of income is from subscriptions or the student-activity fund unless the board of education provides some money. Most journalism departments are proud to show that they can be self-supporting. Good management on the part of staff and adviser can bring about this happy situation.

When contracts are signed, the sponsor will probably arrange for the sending of copy, the return of proofs, and the deadlines for all material. These same arrangements will have to be made if there is a school print shop. If copy goes to the shop at the end of a week, ask if the write-up of a football or basketball game may come in later. The inside pages of the paper may have to be printed a week in advance of the others. Sometimes advertising is furnished ahead of other copy.

It seems that the business end of the paper comes first though that part is more than likely to seem of minor importance to the general public. On no account should the instructor or administrator have to solicit advertising.

CHOOSING THE STAFF

Each year the adviser probably starts with an inexperienced group. What is the best method of choosing a staff? Shall it be by vote of the class or the whole school, by application of individuals, by try-outs, by a faculty committee, or by the instructor alone?

Considering the first method, some say it is the most democratic, but it may turn out to be a popularity contest. Often the persons elected are in every other activity in school. But try this at least once. Application gives a chance to those who have secret ambitions to be someone but who would never get there if they had to rely on a popular vote. However, if the whole class want to be editors, arrange that each one in rotation try his hand. Though he may fall down on the job, he will have tested out his ability. At least he will never be so critical of others afterwards.

The try-out method is expensive in time. One way to do this is to give opportunity in the preceding spring by letting juniors put out one issue as an extracurricular project. This would have to be used after the paper had been established for some time.

A faculty committee may consider only writing ability or merely responsibility. They may pass by the boy who has not been much interested in the mechanics of our language, but who would have just the right touch

and vocabulary through his constant reading of the sports page in the city daily. Again the group might be governed by certain personal prejudices. This may be the best way, especially if the journalism adviser is new in the school. She cannot estimate her new pupils in two or three weeks. If she has had the group in English classes previously, she may be a fairly good judge of staff material.

Whatever method she chooses, she should leave the loophole that, if editors do not perform their duties, the teacher has the right to make changes. In all the years I have been connected with a school paper, I have seldom found a staff that was not responsible and capable. They are too much interested to neglect their tasks. Another item to note is that the class members themselves are judges of each other and do not hesitate to call delinquents to time.

General qualifications for an ideal staff include, besides responsibility, accuracy, a pleasing personality, willingness to do more than the assigned work, and a keen "nose" for news. The study of journalism and working on the paper more often than not develop great possibilities along this line.

A basic staff in a class of twenty will consist of three to four editors who may rotate as to pages each time; possibly an editor-in-chief, an exchange editor, mailing clerk, two or more feature editors, and an alumni editor. For the business part there is a business manager; bookkeeper; four circulation managers; two advertising managers, one of which may write a column that will appeal to girls; copy reader; a typist; and a photographer.

If the group is smaller, some of these positions can be combined. Editors may also be copy readers for their individual pages.

Everyone is responsible for the proofreading of his own articles as well as for assisting others. The advertising managers may or may not collect for the ads they solicit. The bookkeeper makes out all bills and handles the money by the authority of the adviser. All financial transactions will probably be handled through the superintendent's office. The business manager might be delegated to do this.

The masthead of the paper should, soon after the first of the year, contain the names of cub reporters from the lower classes. English teachers can co-operate in this matter by inspiring their pupils to write for the paper. As soon as the cub has written ten inches he gets his name on the staff, an incentive to future journalists. If there are no home-room reporters, volunteers are feeders for coming staffs. The seniors do not have enough contacts to cover the whole school as do the cubs.

OBJECTIVES

With a competent teacher and an enthusiastic class, there should be the following objectives. The first is to develop skill in writing all kinds of stories including the application of the mechanics of English. Editors do not write all the editorials, nor the sports editors all about football and basketball. As a first-semester requirement, each one in the class has to have published in the paper, or ready for publication, an editorial; a feature story; a speech report; a review of a comparatively recent book, fiction or nonfiction; and an interview which he has obtained on his own initiative. The grades of the five projects constitute one fourth of his semester grade in journalism.

The second is to provide training in the accurate and objective gathering, evaluating, and reporting of facts. Each student has a "beat" which he covers for four to six weeks and then is assigned another. The first-page editor makes out the assignment sheet, and the class is allowed to sign up for one story only the first time round. That takes care of the major stories. After that they may take more of the smaller events or bring them in from their beats. There is a rule which requires that, if the story has a faculty source, the copy must be checked with the teacher before publication. In fact, any report is to be double checked. The misspelling of a name in the paper brings the penalty of having to pay for a coke for the victim and then publishing the correction in the next issue.

Students must learn to judge the importance of stories. The editors generally designate the kind of head for a story, whether it goes at the top of the page, or on what page. The "cutoff" rule is easy to learn though the parting gives pain to the writer who wants the inches to his credit.

Another objective is to make the school paper a vehicle for improving relations between school and community. That was one of the main reasons we started a paper in our school years ago. We felt that the public did not know enough about what we were trying to accomplish. No one had the opportunity to present the situation as the students did. Constructive criticism, not destructive, was needed. They knew that three times as many people would read the school paper as were enrolled, because the *Times* went into all the homes. They could advertise any school event to their hearts' content. They could publicize the good work done in classes without taking up the space in the town papers which the publishers had sometimes donated rather grudgingly. This year the school paper had something in every issue about the need for an addition to the school building. When the bond issue was passed, the students felt that they had helped materially.

Fourth in the list is to develop character and personality traits of trustworthiness and responsibility that will carry over into practical living. A deadline is an important thing in the newspaper world. Students who have been accustomed to getting themes in late begin to realize that the paper does not wait until day after tomorrow. "Now Is the Hour" becomes the theme song. If one person is late, another has to step in to do the work, but also receives the credit and grade. The penalty of deduction from the number of inches written is very effective.

To know that, when an article comes out in print, nothing can be done to change it and that, if mistakes are made, the whole school will see them, makes for better copy. One suggestion for placing responsibility is that each piece of writing is signed by the author. This original copy is preserved until several days after the paper comes out. Each reporter also signs across the face of the printed article he has written. This record of his work is kept in one file of the paper.

Even the circulation department takes pride in not having a single paper go astray. Many a business manager or bookkeeper has learned enough through practical application on the paper to go into a similar job with the recommendation of the adviser or the principal.

Meeting the public in a diplomatic manner, being able to get information without annoyance to the persons concerned, soothing some irate victim of a mistake in the paper—all these give excellent training in practical living. Some situations call for more forbearance than the average high-school student has had to exert before. Once in a while some reporter returns from an assignment almost with tears in his eyes because he was refused, ignored, or insulted. But such is life, and the staff member has to take it in his stride. Fortunately such unpleasantness is rare.

Another objective is to learn basic business methods in order to conduct a high-school newspaper successfully. The instructor or administrator should not be responsible for all business transactions even though his signature is necessary on contracts. Making out a budget, watching expenditures, collecting bills, making the books balance, and keeping within an income are processes invisible to the casual observer, but a very necessary part of the publication. It is surprising to the annual staff that a page with a single word on it is as expensive as one filled with print. "If we can make a little extra money, may we have more pages?" is the query now instead of "Let's have more pages." There is always an interested group around the business manager when he checks in with the bookkeeper. They begin

to realize that even a little paper has all the problems and principles of a big business.

The sixth goal is to be able to read a newspaper discriminatingly. Perhaps all their lives these students have read only one newspaper with never a thought about it except the funnies and the front page. For nine months they publish their own paper and find out that there is such a thing as an editorial or a feature story. The rest of their lives they will be readers of periodicals, but with a difference. They can distinguish between opinion facts and physical facts. They learn to judge the truth from such newspaper labels as by-lines, date lines, and press news service indicating source and reliability. They study and examine papers from all over the country to evaluate their contents and policies.

The seventh objective, closely connected with the sixth, is to learn about public opinion and propaganda. Several weeks in the second semester are devoted to this combination of journalism, social problems, and psychology. In the final test on the course, students rank this study highly as being most helpful in life situations. Magazines, movies, papers, and radio are carefully analyzed. Clippings are made illustrating the seven devices of propaganda. They realize that propaganda is both good and bad.

Vocabulary study, stressed throughout the year is scheduled for once a week, "rain or shine." Several leading magazines offer, at no additional cost, word studies based on the current number of the publication.

SOURCE MATERIALS

As to texts we prefer not to have a definite one. The department has paid for three different sets and numerous single copies to be used for reference. There is a workbook that can be covered in the first semester. It includes a style sheet, spelling words, illustrations of every kind of writing, and pages for the string book record (material written by the staff, clipped and pasted in and counted by inches for part of the grade for each six weeks).

For oral reports in the second semester, pupils are asked to read such books with a journalism atmosphere as *Autobiography of William Allen White*, *Solo in Tom Toms*, *Story of AP*, and *Assigned to Adventure*.

The magazines, *Scholastic Editor* and *Quill and Scroll*, are indispensable for the latest ideas in high-school journalism. They are very much alive to problems that confront all high-school publications.

The school paper should belong to at least one rating association which will give constructive criticism of every part. It may be by one semester,

both semesters, or issue by issue. Subject matter, coverage, typography, business methods, and other phases are treated in the score book. There is probably a state press association with a conference and round tables that are well worth while. National conventions are a treat, though rather expensive, especially if your school is located at quite a distance from the Middle West or East.

Enter the approved creative writing contests—state, district, or national. Even though the young writers do not always win, trying does something for the journalist.

Quill and Scroll is an international honor society for high-school journalists. Two of the requirements are to be in the upper one third of the junior or senior class in scholarship and to do outstanding work in journalism.

THE CLASS PERIOD

For the regular class period, it is well to have a definite day-by-day schedule for duties. Any two weeks on the program of a bi-monthly paper might work out as follows:

Thursday: All advertisements in. These are typed on half sheets, one ad only for each, ready for the linotypist at the print shop.

Friday: Editorials and most of the feature material.

Monday: News writing. Remainder of feature stories.

Tuesday: News writing. Second-page editor makes up his dummy.

Wednesday: First, third, and part of fourth-page dummy completed. Headline writing completed. (Reporters write heads for their own articles.)

Thursday: Completion of copy for the paper. Everything typed on half sheets. If there are handset heads, these are repeated on separate sheets for the benefit of the printer—material is sorted not by page location but by head sizes.

Friday: Vocabulary and instruction. Talk about next issue of paper. There is still time to send in more copy.

Monday: Galley proofs back from printer who also furnishes an extra set on colored paper to be used in pasting up the permanent dummy, page by page.

Tuesday: Page proof from the printer. Final corrections made. First-page editor has new assignment sheet. Advertising manager has assignments for next issue's advertisements.

Wednesday: Distribution of papers in home-room periods. In journalism class, the circulation managers use that time for delivery of papers to advertisers. Mailing clerk prepares the out-of-town lists. Students cut out their articles to be pasted in stringbooks and sign the file that is kept for record of material written. The paper is read critically and mistakes pointed out with plans to make it better next time. Suggestions are made for future make-up as no two issues should be too much alike. Pictures, if used, are sent to the engraver so that cuts will come back in time for the next paper.

On the following Thursday the same routine begins again. By the second semester much of this can be done in the laboratory period, and time can be spent on learning how to read the newspaper and on public opinion and propaganda.

All this sounds like a busy class, but the busiest one of all is the journalism teacher. Every bit of copy will go through her hands until she can train editors to correct it. Most supervisors want to see all material before it goes into publication. She will, of course, catch many a mistake that an untrained staff cannot see. Even late in the year, she will take a look at the galley proofs, but she should make the class responsible for the page proof from the very first. Of course there will be mistakes, but even metropolitan papers cannot lay claim to being perfect. After all, it takes years of training to be good proofreaders.

Now, Mr. Administrator, you can see that the journalism teacher has quite a load. Though she may be willing to work endlessly so that the high-school paper can receive a top rating, don't load her with too many other classes.

FREE —

SO many requests have been received for copies of "Bringing Consumer Education into Action," which was published in the May, 1948, *Bulletin*, that it has been reprinted. This article presents in outlines for several teachers meetings a plan of action by which needs can be analyzed and a blueprint of a sound working program for consumer education can be made. A reasonable number of copies will be sent free of charge on application to *Consumer Education Study, National Association of Secondary-School Principals, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W., Washington 6, D. C.*

Preparing High School Publications

GEORGE STARR LASHER

CONSISTENT with its character as a pioneer institution, Ohio University, the first university to be established west of the Alleghenies (1804), has discovered a solution to one of the high schools' most perplexing problems, the training of student publication executives. As an experiment, the School of Journalism conducted three workshops the opening week of the 1948 summer session. More than seventy editors and business managers and some of their advisers, representing approximately thirty high schools from all parts of Ohio, came to enjoy a real taste of college life, and at the same time to prepare themselves to meet specific publication problems this fall.

On their arrival in Athens Sunday night, they were housed in university dormitories, and at nine o'clock Monday morning they were greeted by George Starr Lasher, Director of the School of Journalism, and the Dean of Women, Irma Voigt, with the announcement that for that week they would be considered not as guests, but as members of the university, having the same privileges as regularly enrolled students and the same responsibilities as well.

They were given schedules of work in classrooms and laboratories that kept them definitely occupied from nine each morning until 4:30 P.M., except for a luncheon period. In charge of the classrooms were regular members of the university faculty, who had had considerable experience with student publications and who were ready with projects that offered similar challenges to those that students would face in their own schools.

SOME OF THE PROCEDURES

Editors of newspapers struggled with problems of news gathering, news writing, headline construction, page make-up, proofreading, the writing of editorials and features, and policy problems. They wrote, criticized, and re-

George Starr Lasher is Director of the School of Journalism, College of Commerce, Ohio University, Athens, Ohio.

wrote. They not only composed headlines on paper, but also actually set some of them in type. As Professor L. J. Hortin, who was in charge, said, "It is rather difficult to compress a four-year course in journalism into one week, but we did our best to accomplish just that." He and his assistant, Edward Birkner, instructor in journalism, agreed that that would have been quite impossible had it not been that the young people with whom they worked were unusually alert and thoroughly interested.

Evidence of some of the things learned took the form of a mimeographed newspaper filled with news of the workshops, those participating, the opening of the summer session, and the third annual Conference on Student Publications which was scheduled for three days at the end of the week. The paper was not only produced by students, but it was also sold by members of the workshop group interested in the business activities of publications. These latter students, under the direction of A. T. Turnbull, Jr., instructor in newspaper business and advertising courses, learned in a very concrete way about bookkeeping, printing and engraving contracts, the ordering of engravings and other supplies, promotion, circulation, and advertising problems.

To plan the 1949 yearbooks will not be a baffling situation to the editors-elect who learned the rudiments from Miss Isabelle Work, associate professor of art, and Arthur W. Sherman, Jr., who edited or helped to edit seven yearbooks in his high-school and university careers. The yearbook editors discussed themes, wrote and edited copy, did proofreading, and learned how to get the best results possible when working under a limited budget. Supplied with sheets of paper, illustrations, rubber cement, shears, rulers, and various art materials, the students under the direction of Professor Work learned how to design effective pages, how to get desirable eye appeal throughout the book, how to use colors, how to instruct photographers and sketch artists, and how to design a cover that would be suitable and attractive.

As all of the workshops provided plenty of activity, there was no lagging of interest. They also helped to give a background of interest for the conference sessions which opened Thursday afternoon. Discussion periods gave students and advisers an opportunity to learn how they could get the most for their money from printers, engravers, photographers, and paper makers. Their informants were experienced representatives of commercial concerns, who after presenting their own ideas were challenged by intelligent questions by young people eager to secure authoritative information.

Then came round-tables through which students and advisers had a chance to get additional specific information from the representatives of the commercial concerns, from professional newspaper men and women, as well as from university faculty members, and, most important of all, through an exchange of their own ideas and experiences. The topics considered covered many of the most challenging questions that arise in connection with student publications. They gave an opportunity for the threshing out of controversial questions as well as providing helpful information.

As the climax of the week's program came clinics in which newspapers and yearbooks published last year by the schools represented were analyzed and constructively criticized. Various experts in newspaper production dealt with news and news treatment, advertising and its typographical treatment, and eye appeal, while experts in the yearbook field considered editing, photography, and art. There was no attempt to judge the publications submitted, but the clinic treatment was thoroughgoing. Supplementing the workshops and conference sessions were trips through the university radio, photography, typography, and engraving laboratories; through the plant of the *Athens Messenger*, where the students saw a newspaper with a circulation of 20,000 being printed, and through the Lawhead Press, where a high-school yearbook was in production.

There were exhibits of books and manuals dealing with high-school journalism and extensive displays of high-school newspapers, yearbooks, magazines, yearbook covers, books papers, photographs, layout sheets, and other material that proved to be of interest and profit.

Despite the concentrated workshop schedule and conference meetings, time was found for social activities which added much to the week's program.

The workshops and conference were planned as a feature of the summer session, and every effort was made by the university to keep the expenses at a minimum. A workshop fee of \$5.00 was charged each student. Board and room, starting Sunday night and ending with luncheon on Saturday, was provided for \$10.50. There were no charges for the entertainment program. While most participants paid their own expenses, a number of the schools provided payment from their activity or publication funds. Both advisers and students felt that this would prove a good investment as they could see clearly how the cost of their productions could be reduced and the standard raised as a result of information which they had gained from their week's experiences.

OUTCOMES

This experiment of a combination of workshops and conferences was certainly a success from the point of view of students and advisers if one can judge by thoroughgoing enthusiasm and sincere praise. All felt that they had received rich dividends on their time, money, and effort. As one girl editor expressed it, "The only thing wrong is that I can't go home and start working with my staff immediately to put into effect the many things I have learned here. I have never before had such a good time and learned so much that was worth while in a single week."

Advisers commented on the practical approach that was made in dealing with all aspects of publications. Even those who had had years of experience in directing student newspapers and yearbooks found much that was new and stimulating. Those who will get their baptism in this type of advisership this fall stated that the experiences and advice secured gave them much needed confidence, both as to what to do and how to do it. A few of the advisers were somewhat amazed, even bewildered, by the informal atmosphere that was quickly established, the give and take in discussion, and the nonprofessional attitude of the university teachers. But all agreed that results were obtained by the program carried out and that results were good.

The most critical evaluation was that made by the workshop staff of six members who found the experiment a very real challenge even after very thorough planning. They knew that success depended on whether or not they could get a group of students, unacquainted with each other and in a strange environment, to participate fully and intelligently from the first day in projects that required real work and continued interest.

To do that they felt it was necessary to dispense with conventional classroom formality, give each individual specific things to do, check with him to see that those things were being done wisely and well, and then secure frank, forthright, and constructive criticism from the group about the work done.

In their evaluation they found that excellent results were obtained largely because the students were unusually alert, were willing to work at high speed, had plenty of initiative as well as ability to get ideas quickly, judge them fairly and act upon them without inhibitions, and, most of all, felt a very real sense of responsibility to the schools which had sent them to the workshops.

Members of the staff also found many possibilities for improvement, and are already planning a program for next summer that they feel will be

more effective. At that time Ohio University's School of Journalism will be in new quarters, especially designed for training college students to meet the varying needs of the steadily expanding profession of journalism. These facilities that will be made available for next summer's student publication workshops and conferences include a newsroom equipped with twenty-five typewriters, a large typography laboratory, a special journalism library, a classroom arranged for visual instruction, an exhibit gallery, photography and engraving laboratories, a radio broadcasting studio, and classrooms particularly adaptable for varied workshop activities. Added to the 1948 workshop staff will be a number of high-school teachers who have been unusually successful in directing school publications.

So thoroughly convinced is the administration of Ohio University that this program, designed to help high schools in their problems of improving their publications, is thoroughly sound, that it will be made a permanent part of the summer-session program.

ASSOCIATION BUSINESS

for Business Meeting March 1, 1949, Congress Hotel, Chicago, Ill.

SINCE the Planning Committee of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals was authorized, the interests and activities of the Association have greatly increased, and many special committees have been appointed to study and to deal specifically with many issues in secondary-school administration. Often the areas of interest of these committees have come in conflict with or have overlapped the special interests of the Planning Committee. Furthermore, the Executive Committee meets regularly twice a year for an extended session to plan the work of the Association and to set up special committees for special study of important issues. It has been more effective to authorize special committees, with appropriately qualified personnel, to study specific areas than to assign such work to a general Planning Committee. Inasmuch as the work of the Planning Committee is adequately provided for through other committees and commissions, the Executive Committee recommends the elimination of Sections 6 and 7 in Article IV of the Constitution that provide for the Planning Committee.

"Section 6. The chairman of the Planning Committee shall be a member of the Executive Committee, ex-officio, acting in a special capacity as the chairman of a sub-committee on planning.

"Section 7. The five members of the Planning Committee shall be appointed by the Executive Committee. The term of office shall be for five years without reappointment. One member is to be elected each year. One member shall be designated by the Executive Committee as chairman."

It is assumed that if this proposal is accepted present Section 8 in Article IV will be designated as Section 6 in Article IV.

Teacher Load in Illinois High Schools

C. W. ODELL

VARIATIONS in the teaching load of Illinois high-school teachers are more marked when subject-matter fields are compared than when sections of the state, schools of different sizes, or schools in unit or dual systems are compared. While reduction of the median load for all Illinois high-school teachers is indicated, an even more obvious need is the approximate equalization of teaching loads. This is an important factor in the promotion of good morale in a teaching staff.

THE STUDY

The study of teaching load, on which these conclusions are based, was made in Illinois high schools during the year 1946-47. It included a sample of almost ten per cent of the recognized four-year high schools outside the city of Chicago. These schools were so chosen as to constitute an approximately representative group with regard to size of school, geographical location, and type of organization, that is, whether unit or dual.

Only teachers devoting full time to work at the secondary level were included. Nonteaching administrators and supervisors were omitted, as also were those who devoted the major part of their time to work above the twelfth grade. Librarians but not school nurses were included.

From the many suggestions offered by various workers the formula proposed by Douglass¹ was selected for use. Although certain inadequacies are apparent, it seems to be the best formula that has received any considerable amount of use for this purpose. It is:

$$\left[CP - \frac{2Dup}{10} + \frac{(NP - 20CP)}{100} + \frac{PC}{2} \right] \left[\frac{PL+55}{100} \right]$$

¹Douglass, Harl R. *Organization and Administration of Secondary Schools*, Revised Edition. Boston: Ginn and Company, 1945. Chapter V.

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For purposes of easier computation, this may be reduced to:

$$\frac{(8CP + .1NP - 2Dup + 5PC) (PL + 55)}{1000}$$

The symbols employed in the above abbreviated Douglass formula have the following meanings:

CP—Class periods per week

Dup—Class periods per week in classes for which preparation is very similar to other classes, not including the original

NP—Number of pupils in classes per week

PC—Number of class periods per week devoted to study hall, student activities, administrative and supervisory activities, and so forth. When clock hours devoted to extracurricular activities and other duties are reported these must be changed into periods of the length which the particular school has. Thus if a school has 45 minute periods, each clock hour is equal to $1\frac{1}{3}$ such periods; if it has 40 minute periods, each clock hour is equal to $1\frac{1}{2}$ such periods, and so on.

PL—Gross length of class periods in minutes

For classes requiring no reading or scoring of papers, the term NP is eliminated. A double period counts as two, and for each double period one additional unit of duplicate preparation is allowed. The number of pupils is counted for each half of a double period.

For English, science, social studies, commercial law, and commercial geography, a multiplier of 1.1 is used. For foreign language, mathematics, and most commercial work, there is no multiplier. For industrial, household, and fine arts, it is .9; for music and physical education, .8. For junior-college classes, the multiplier is 1.2; for junior high-school classes, .8.

The result yielded by the formula is not an index of teacher load that can be accurately translated into hours per week or other similar terms, but is reasonably comparable from one situation to another.

APPLICATION OF THE FORMULA

Application of the formula may be illustrated by the case of a teacher with four social studies classes, one of which is a duplicate section, daily including a total of 115 pupils and with class periods of forty-five minutes. Also this teacher had one study hall daily and gave ten clock hours per week to student activities and other tasks.

Thus $CP = 4 \times 5 = 20$; $NP = 5 \times 115 = 575$;

$Dup = 5$; $PC = 5 + (1.333 \times 10) = 18.33$; and $PL = 45$.

Hence the formula gives:

$$\frac{[1.1 (8 \times 20) + (.1 \times 575) - (2 \times 5) + (5 \times 18.33)] [45 + 55]}{1000} = 31.52$$

Since the variations in loads among different sections of the state, schools

of different sizes, and schools in unit and dual systems were quite small, data for these different groups of schools are not presented separately in this condensed report.

For individual teachers the first quartile was 25.4; the median, 29.3; and the third quartile, 32.4. For schools as wholes the first quartile of the medians was 27.4; the median, 29.0; and the third quartile, 31.0.

SOME STANDARDS

There is, of course, no generally accepted standard as to what is the ideal teacher load. Schorling² has suggested that three classes per day, with no duplicate sections, averaging fifteen pupils each with sixty-minute periods, and three additional hours daily in study hall, student activities, and so forth is ideal. For such a load, the index is 25.01 if the subject concerned is one for which no multiplier is to be used.

As another example, the index for a teacher who has four classes, one of which is a duplicate, averaging twenty-five pupils each, with sixty-minute periods, one study-hall period per day, with two additional hours a week devoted to school duties, teaching a subject with no multiplier, is 27.03. If the classes are increased to thirty pupils each with no duplicate sections, and five hours a week devoted to other tasks, the index becomes 31.05.

It seems reasonable to suggest that as a standard which schools should try to meet in the very near future a median of 28.00 with no indices below 24.00 or above 32.00 is reasonably satisfactory. As an ideal to work toward, a median of 25.00 with limits of 22.00 and 28.00 is suggested.

These limits are set rather close to the median because the approximate equalization of teacher loads appears to be an important factor in the promotion of good morale in a teaching staff. Exceptions may be made for teachers who are not full time, therefore have loads and receive salaries lower than those of most members of the staff.

INDICES BY SUBJECTS

The data secured were also tabulated by twelve subject-matter fields. The differences among these were distinctly greater than those among different sizes and types of schools. The results of this tabulation are summarized in the accompanying table.

It will be seen from this table that in about half of the subject-matter areas the indices do not vary greatly, the medians running from 29.3 to 31.3, but that in the other half they scatter more, extending down to the two quite low indices for music and physical education.

²Schorling, Raleigh. "An Evolving Bill of Rights for Teachers." *Journal of the National Education Association*. 35: 478-79; November, 1946.

TEACHER LOAD INDICES BY SUBJECTS^a

	<i>Q1</i>	<i>Md.</i>	<i>Q3</i>
Agriculture	24.4	27.8	32.4
Commercial Work	27.2	30.0	32.2
English	28.4	31.2	33.3
Foreign Language	27.6	29.3	31.8
Home Economics	23.7	25.5	28.4
Industrial Arts	24.1	26.4	30.3
Mathematics	27.3	30.2	32.3
Music	16.8	19.8	25.7
Physical Education	17.5	21.0	25.4
Science	28.1	30.7	33.0
Social Studies	29.1	31.3	33.4
Others and Combined ^b	23.4	27.6	31.3
All	25.5	29.2	32.0

^aTeachers who taught in the majority of the classes in subject-matter fields were classified under that heading as also were those who taught all the classes in the field.

^bThis group includes a few librarians, art teachers, and full-time study-hall supervisors, and a number of teachers who taught two or more subjects without having a majority of classes in any one.

EXTREME VARIATIONS IN LOAD

In these, the typical teaching load is just about two thirds as great as in the several subjects with the highest and even of the total in all subjects. One factor in the formula that is responsible for these two subjects being so low is the omission of the number of students, but even if this were not omitted, these two subjects would still have distinctly low indices.

Fourth Annual Nation-wide High-School Testing Program Concerning the Student's Understanding of Recent Social and Scientific Developments in the World Today

THE Fourth Annual Nationwide High-School Testing Program has been announced by the Co-operative Test Division of the Educational Testing Service.

In the 1948 program, approximately 156,500 test booklets were distributed to 642 high schools, representing all states. The results revealed that many high-school pupils are seriously uninformed about contemporary affairs. Judging from the comments of participating school principals, the test results stimulated a great deal of fruitful discussion concerning general educational objectives and will be instrumental in bringing about some improvement in this situation.

The dates scheduled for the program are April 1 through April 30, 1949. Orders for test materials should be placed immediately. The cost of the service to each school will be 10 cents per pupil plus a \$2.00 school registration fee and shipping costs. Specimen sets of materials used in an earlier program (20 cents per set), registration blanks, and detailed literature about the program may be obtained from the Co-operative Test Division of the Educational Testing Service, 15 Amsterdam Avenue, New York 23, New York.

Teaching Has Its Compensations

A Program of Teacher Recruitment

HENRY C. GRAY

Introduction

CONFRONTED by the most acute teacher shortage in the history of American education, the nation's public school system faces a serious breakdown," wrote Benjamin Fine in *The New York Times*. Although the situation has improved slightly, unless those interested in American public education get busy, our public schools will continue to suffer.

We are all very well aware of the serious situation which newspapers, movies, and radio have presented over and over again. And now we teachers must take an active part to rectify this situation. The National Education Association made a plea for all local teachers' organizations to study their local situations to arouse the public to the need, and to develop some plan for teacher recruitment.

In answer to this plea, the South Orange-Maplewood Teachers' Association appointed a committee to study the problem. This committee, composed of sixteen persons, has carefully considered the problem in our community. This afternoon we shall present our findings with a suggested program of action.

Why are our young people not entering the teaching profession? Without doubt, the low salaries and the recent unfavorable publicity have done much to turn young people away, but many interested people have thought there were other reasons. In May, 1947, the Metropolitan School Study Council tried to discover just what the teachers, high-school seniors, and parents in the communities in this metropolitan area thought about teaching. From the questionnaires filled in by over seventy per cent of Columbia High School seniors, most of our teachers, and a cross-section of parents in each

This is a report of the Teacher Recruitment Committee of the South Orange-Maplewood Teachers' Association in New Jersey given at a general meeting of the teachers of this school community of which Dr. C. H. Threlkeld is superintendent. Miss Ida Grace Alexander and Henry C. Gray were co-chairmen of the committee.

district of South Orange and Maplewood, we have tried to determine what factors should be considered in building a program for recruitment of teachers here. Most of you filled in the questionnaires and showed your interest in this study by the thoroughness with which you answered the questions.

Listen to what some of you say about teaching. The following quotations are taken from the questionnaires you filled out:

TEACHERS....(*Presented by teachers backstage over the public address system*)

"It is great to work with people rather than with things." (Woman)

"Too many interferences with actual teaching." (Woman)

"College inoculated me with the virus of service. I never got over it. Teaching offers opportunities to serve with all the great satisfaction that comes to anyone who works with youth." (Man)

"I would want to choose a vocation where I would make a living wage before giving ten years of my life to get it." (Woman)

"Few opportunities are offered teachers to meet the opposite sex." (Woman)

"I enjoy teaching because there isn't any 'bossing' as is found in business." (Man)

"The individual problems are a constant challenge and there is never a dull moment." (Woman)

"Teaching is a profession to respect. One receives an emotional return from his efforts, which is satisfying." (Woman)

"The attitude of the public and the complete lack of social life in a small community would cause me to choose a different career." (Woman)

"I am happy in teaching, for I gain a feeling of importance from work that helps others to be adjusted more effectively to life." (Man)

"Teachers are expected not to be human beings but in a class by themselves . . . some sort of freak or oddity." (Woman)

"There is the quite prevalent feeling that elementary teachers are inferior to secondary teachers." (Woman)

"I resent being regarded as one whose interests do not extend beyond the classroom. Most parents would not dream of discussing the health problems of their child with the pediatrician if they met him socially, but they usually limit their conversation with a teacher to the child's academic progress." (Woman)

"There is joy in working with a growing child . . . to see his childish appreciation, to know his love, and to hear his responses. The artist finds his joy in painting; the sculptor, in modeling; but the teacher uses neither

canvas nor clay but the mind, soul, and body of the living child. To accept this challenge and the responsibility of turning out something lasting and fine . . . to know sometimes that you have succeeded . . . this is the inspiration of teaching." (Woman)

"In so many of these suburban communities one has to adapt to a standard of living that is not even up to the median of the group." (Man)

"Teachers' attitudes in regard to themselves are poor. They are ashamed to admit that they are teachers. They should be proud that they are teachers. They should be delightful, stimulating people, showing pride and satisfaction in the work they do." (Woman)

"The salaries under a single salary schedule are sufficient for a single woman to live comfortably, but are not adequate to support a family. No clear and discriminating thinking man will choose such a profession unless pressed into it." (Man)

DISCUSSION OF TEACHERS' ATTITUDES *M. Claire Milbauer*

This study made by the Metropolitan School Study Council shows that sixty per cent of our South Orange-Maplewood teachers would re-enter teaching if they had an opportunity to choose a career again. This percentage is about the same for all the schools in the study. Of the twenty per cent who did not state whether they would or would not re-enter teaching, many probably would. The remaining twenty per cent of us who would not re-enter teaching should be of much concern to us all. Although this does not indicate that teachers are more unhappy than are people in other vocations, it does present a serious situation. It is probably psychologically true that a person who is so dissatisfied with his work can contribute little to the welfare of his pupils. Our faculty members find happiness in their work because:

1. They find satisfaction in working with children and young people . . . in seeing them grow . . . in accepting the challenge and the responsibility in working with the mind, soul, and body of the living child in order to help turn out something lasting and fine.
2. They find opportunities for personal growth and initiative.
3. They believe in the importance of education in a democracy.

On the other hand, they find certain factors which interfere with their personal growth and happiness:

1. Salaries are not comparable to the responsibilities of the profession.
2. There are too few opportunities for social contacts in the community.

3. Many teachers feel that people in the community consider teachers members of a special class and do not really respect them or their work.
4. Often elementary-school teachers feel that they are considered inferior to secondary-school teachers.
5. Too many nonteaching demands are made on the time and energy of the teacher.

Recognizing these problems, what action are we, as teachers, going to take? Perhaps we should be in a better position to make plans if we stopped to consider what young people who had been in school for twelve years wrote about our profession on the questionnaires they filled out:

PUPILS (*Presented by pupils backstage over the public address system*)

"A secretary, if she is a good one, can earn from \$4,000 to \$10,000 per year. Teaching is a poor paying profession. If I didn't want or need money, I wouldn't mind teaching; but I want a job where I'll be well paid. A teacher's job is never done; but a secretary's job lasts from nine o'clock to five o'clock." (Girl)

"I have quite a lot of patience and have enjoyed helping youngsters. I tutored a junior-high student for a brief period and got quite a lot out of the experience." (Girl)

"Democracy, to be strong, must have its foundations in education on democratic lines with youth. A vocation for me must be one in which I also serve others besides myself. While journalism has enticed me, I believe I shall find greater satisfaction in teaching." (Boy)

"Teaching would give one a feeling that she has a certain amount of freedom; at least more than could be had by working in an office. (Girl)

"I think the training for teaching is valuable, not only for teaching but also for a home and family." (Girl)

"I want to teach because I want to do something to help others. I believe that one could begin at no better place than with young people." (Boy)

"I prefer secretarial work for the wages are higher and the chances for meeting my husband seem, at present, to be much greater." (Girl)

"I haven't made up my mind as to what I am going to do, but I might consider teaching because it seems to be interesting work . . . dealing with different types of children, choosing the best methods of presentation of material, and watching the development of the children seems exciting. Many of the teachers I know are such fine people that I sometimes wonder wheth-

er the job brings out the best in teachers or the teachers emphasize the best in the job." (Girl)

"There is little variety. The same course is presented year after year. There is not enough challenge for my ability." (Boy)

"Teaching, as a profession, is too complex. Teachers teach you to be your own boss, but they aren't their own bosses themselves." (Boy)

"Because of what happens at school, the majority of teachers become angry and fussy. Because of this, they are disliked by other people and, therefore, do not have much social life." (Girl)

"Most of the teachers' colleges, especially state colleges, are not very well equipped and standardized to do a good job of teaching teachers." (Boy)

"The parents of the pupils have very little respect for the teachers and the profession." (Girl)

"Missionary work will enable me to work with a very poor class of people and to help bring about better living conditions for these people. A missionary travels a lot and, although his pay is next to nothing, every minute is a new experience." (Girl)

"I think that teachers who are really interested in their pupils from a more personal view are very much needed in schools today. I would enjoy teaching because I like to make friends." (Boy)

"I'd like to go into math or science. The extent of the math field for women is rather limited, but teaching offers a place for the application of this knowledge that is as big as any other place." (Girl)

"I am extremely interested in chemistry and would like to go into lab work after college graduation. This appeals to me much more than the teaching profession, for I do not feel that I have sufficient confidence or poise to be a good teacher." (Boy)

"Teaching seems to be a direct road to the insane asylum." (Boy)

"I have heard various teachers complain that the work they have piled on them is enough to keep two or three persons busy instead of one." (Girl)

"Teachers seem terribly unappreciated and command very little respect from the pupil. If I were to go into teaching, I would not choose a local school system but would go to a foreign country or to an underprivileged part of the United States where a person could really accomplish something." (Girl)

"I hope to enter medicine, for it offers a wider range of contrasts and a greater opportunity for contacts with people. School teaching seems to

limit contacts to students and to a few associates that are within the profession." (Boy)

"I feel that by entering nursing I will be satisfying a long-cherished ambition. The financial opportunities offered in the nursing profession are superior to those offered in the teaching profession." (Girl)

"I like people and in teaching I would come in contact with many people. Because I admire so many of my teachers, if I could be like them, I would be pleased to become a teacher." (Boy)

"I might like to teach if I knew more about the actual preparation for such a career. I have not chosen a vocation yet so I feel that I could teach. I could do a good job if I felt capable of doing the work and the job were made more attractive to me than it is now." (Girl)

"There is little chance for advancement for a teacher. She has to get degrees from college for each high position. A secretary can become an executive simply by doing her work well and by showing interest in the business." (Girl)

"I should not like teaching because, in many instances, your interests and friends are restricted to the teaching profession." (Boy)

"I feel that the teaching profession is unappreciated. A person could work hard but he might work without the satisfaction of being appreciated or thanked." (Girl)

"I do not believe that there is enough chance for personal advancement and stimulation in teaching. One sticks to the same subject year after year, which may cause him to go stale." (Boy)

"I shall become a stenographer for I feel that I like to work by myself rather than with others. I feel that I cannot handle a class successfully. I might not always know the answers to the questions asked." (Girl)

"I hope to become a staff writer on some magazine where I can meet more people of my own age with a variety of interests. All in all, I'm rather afraid that it's the glamour of the writing field over the complete lack of glamour in the teaching field that attracts me." (Boy)

"I prefer social work. My private life will be my own. I want to work with people not just children." (Girl)

"Teaching is nerve wracking; the wages are low; there is little or no consideration shown the teacher by the pupils." (Boy)

"Some women teachers are inhuman." (Boy)

"There is little variety in subject matter or in the treatment of this subject matter. This experience would be humdrum and dull for me." (Boy)

"I believe that I should like to teach because of the feeling of satisfaction that comes when you help people. I might enjoy it because of the sheer enjoyment that can be had with a bunch of eager youngsters in a classroom." (Boy)

"I shall be a drummer in a band. I like music—it's free and easy. In the music field you have no great demand from the public other than good musicianship which is a pleasure rather than an obligation. You don't have to be too careful what you do or say in fear of being criticized by those under or over you." (Boy)

DISCUSSION OF ATTITUDES OF HIGH-SCHOOL SENIORS.....*Robert F. Brown*

Only four per cent of the pupils who were graduated from Columbia High School in 1947 planned to go into teaching. In the whole study, six per cent of the high-school graduates planned to enter teaching. Either of these percentages is inadequate to meet the needs of the teaching profession. If eight per cent of the graduates of all the high schools in the United States were to enter teaching, these recruits would fill only the places made vacant by those teachers who leave the profession every year. More than eight per cent are needed to meet such needs as increased enrollment, smaller classes, and specialized services. When our teachers in general are so well satisfied with teaching, why do our high-school seniors show so little interest in the profession? In the statements some seniors have shown that:

1. The salaries are too low, particularly for men.
2. Teachers do not help and stimulate the individual pupil; they are too much concerned with their subject.
3. Teaching is dull and monotonous as teachers present the same material over and over again.
4. Teachers' colleges are not prepared to train teachers well.
5. Teachers are not respected by parents nor by pupils.

On the other hand, some seniors have told us that:

1. There is satisfaction to be had from helping others.
2. Friendliness and kindness are greatly appreciated by the pupils.
3. Teaching may serve well in the future homes of the pupils.
4. There is a felt need for more teachers and the pupils are interested in being of help.

In view of these statements, what can we, as teachers, do to influence favorably the attitude of pupils toward teachers and teaching? Having heard what teachers and pupils say about us and our profession, let us hear what

parents said about us. The following quotations were taken at random from the questionnaires turned in by parents:

PARENTS (*Presented by teachers backstage over the public address system*)

"We need to bring out in our teaching that character and integrity are really worth while and that material success is not all there is in life. A true teacher can inspire a child by her warm understanding and sympathetic interest." (Woman)

"Our son likes people and has an understanding of them. We feel he has a contribution to make in the teaching profession and that he would be happy in it. The teaching field needs strong personalities as well as good minds. People should choose teaching as should doctors and clergymen choose their career . . . not as a last resort for timid souls or a stop-gap until marriage. Be an educator . . . not a teacher." (Man)

"I would like my daughter to go into teaching because I feel that it is a most satisfying experience to one who enjoys it. Unfortunately, after talking to her and to many of her friends, I have found that there is a very definite distaste for it. This I cannot understand. Many of these girls have, to my mind, great possibilities for the profession. I can't figure out why they are so greatly opposed. Personally, I do not feel that they have been urged by any of their teachers to follow this profession. I truly believe that they have never been told the advantages and, on the other hand, the disadvantages." (Woman)

"The teaching profession is certainly a necessary field and the standards of teachers should be kept high. The child who shows a definite interest in becoming a teacher will undoubtedly make a good one and that is what we want." (Man)

"Teaching is a worthy career. My college president used to say that teaching ranked next to motherhood and, therefore, should be taken very seriously. If my child should decide to teach, with this in mind, I should consider it a sign of character." (Woman)

"Although teachers never achieve great financial success, those who do a good job are admired by their pupils and hence by the community. The school system and the welfare of the community need the best teachers that can be had. People of dignity and background are needed to crowd out those who turn to teaching as a last resort." (Woman)

"In the case of my son I should not be pleased because the salaries paid teachers will not allow a man to rear a family as do other professional men in the community." (Man)

"Teaching is on a par with law, medicine, and the ministry. There is nothing more important than moulding the youth of our country. Why not make teaching more attractive to young people?" (Woman)

"I'd be pleased to have my son or daughter become a teacher because I believe that teaching as a process of helping others to realize their best powers or selves becomes a way to realize one's own best self." (Man)

"This country is becoming more and more educational minded, and the teacher of tomorrow will enjoy more of the community respect than did his predecessors." (Woman)

"For such an important and noble profession, there is not enough advancement to attract new teachers. The public should work with the school system to make a readjustment and give the profession the prestige it deserves." (Man)

"In regard to the profession of teaching, much can be done by educational leaders to make it more attractive. These leaders are inclined to be guided by past experience and sign posts set by past generations. As a matter of fact, when industry follows this same procedure, it soon eliminates itself by default. Why not conduct some far reaching researches as are now conducted in the chemical and in the automotive industries?" (Man)

DISCUSSION OF ATTITUDES OF PARENTS

Mary E. Tinnin

The answers which parents gave to the questions asked them indicate that they have a very favorable attitude toward teaching. Fifty-eight per cent of the parents would be pleased if their children should wish to become teachers. Twenty-eight per cent of the parents would be neither pleased nor displeased because they wish their children to decide their vocations for themselves. Only fourteen per cent would be definitely displeased if their children wished to become teachers. Their unfavorable attitude is due to the fact that:

1. They believe the salaries are inadequate, particularly for men.
2. They think that teaching tends to put teachers in ruts and to prevent their growth.
3. They believe that teaching limits a girl's opportunity of meeting men.

Parents have this favorable attitude toward teaching because:

1. They believe in the importance of education for the future welfare of the United States.
2. They realize the satisfaction that can come from helping young people grow.

3. They believe that the people engaged in teaching are making an important contribution to the community and that their work is respected.

GENERAL CONSIDERATION OF ATTITUDES EXPRESSED.....*Henry C. Gray*

Teachers, high-school seniors, and parents have given us many reasons for the various attitudes they hold toward teaching, and we believe these have given us a better understanding of the local problems involved in teacher recruitment. To draw up a program of action we must consider the following:

One parent stated that she believed teachers did little to encourage pupils to consider teaching as a vocation. What does a comparison of the attitudes of teachers and seniors tell us about the influence of teachers upon the attitudes of pupils? Sixty per cent of our South Orange-Maplewood teachers said that they would re-enter teaching if they had a chance of choosing a vocation again, while only four per cent of our Columbia High School seniors plan to teach. On the other hand, twenty per cent of our teachers would not re-enter the profession, while thirty-three per cent of the seniors have no desire to teach even though they have no other vocational interests. How much do teachers affect the attitudes of pupils toward teaching? Do these statistics indicate that discontented teachers have more influence upon pupils than do teachers who enjoy teaching?

Many of our teachers and several seniors think that there are great satisfactions that can be derived from teaching. They believe that the work is interesting. No teacher mentioned that it was tedious or uninteresting, yet many seniors think teaching is dull and monotonous. Does this indicate anything about us and our work?

What do the statements quoted tell us about our relations as teachers with the other members of the community? A considerable number of our teachers indicated that the members of the community did not respect us or our profession, while a large proportion of the parents said that they had great respect for the profession. Many teachers mentioned that the profession offered them opportunities for individual growth and good personal development. On the other hand, some teachers find that there are too many nonteaching demands upon their time and energies, that the work involved is nerve-wracking, and that the work does not offer sufficient opportunities for social contacts in the community. Many elementary-school teachers think that the community

considers them inferior to secondary-school teachers. Some of our men teachers find that a salary schedule the same for men as for women works a hardship upon their efforts to support a family. A number of parents expressed the same idea when they said teaching is a poor job for a boy. What do these statements tell us about our relations with other members of the community?

Are we proud of our profession? Are we convinced of the importance of education to the future welfare of our country? Fifteen per cent of all the reasons given by parents in South Orange and Maplewood for being pleased if their children should wish to become teachers were concerned with this factor. About fifteen per cent of all reasons given by teachers for their favorable attitude toward the profession were concerned with the importance of education. Does this indicate a lack of emphasis on the place education should take in our culture?

Do the answers given by our high-school seniors tell us anything about their vocational needs?

Four per cent of the seniors in 1947 indicated they were planning to teach.

Twenty per cent of these seniors thought they might like to teach, but they hadn't decided about a vocation.

Forty-two per cent had made choices in other vocational fields.

Thirty per cent had no vocational interests except that they knew they did not want to teach.

One girl said that she wished to become a stenographer because she could earn \$5,000 a year at once. Many other strange and distorted ideas about vocations were given by the seniors. Are we helping young people so that they may choose their vocations wisely?

With these attitudes, reasons, and their implications, our committee went to work. After careful deliberation, we have drawn up a Program of Action. This program is for teachers. It includes the things we should and can do to build up our profession and to help recruit able young people. There are things that should be done by others: the administration, the community, and, perhaps, even the pupils. Mr. De Beer will present the Program of Action for your consideration.

PROGRAM OF ACTION.....*John L. De Beer*

Teachers must realize their influence upon the pupils' attitudes toward teachers and teaching.

Said Emerson, "What you are speaks so loudly that I cannot hear a word you say."

Attitudes are being formed all of the time whether we are conscious of the process or not. The teacher who is a real person will excite feelings favorable to the profession, and *vice versa*. In order to do this effectively, each teacher must evidence personal pride in the profession. If such pride is not present, a re-evaluation of one's ideals is in order. Moreover, the teacher must demonstrate desirable personal qualities; a sense of humor, open-mindedness, poise, charm; the absence of dogmatism.

The dignity of the individual child must be respected in order that he may understand that the educative process is vital, and that the teacher's contribution is essential to the meeting of his needs.

School experiences must be organized in a meaningful way. Each of these experiences must be subjected to the test of its usefulness to the individual and society. Moreover, its presentation must be adapted to the needs and capacities of the pupils to such a degree that each pupil may feel, "Here is something I can use."

The teacher himself should seek opportunities to affect the community's attitude toward the teacher and teaching.

We must assess our own worth to the community. We must be conscious that we serve a needed and worthy function. Yet we must not expect a "fuss" or "sympathy."

Where opportunity arises, there should be individual or group participation in community activities.

Everyone has a strategic starting point in the parent-teacher, person-to-person contacts afforded in the school.

The salary question will take care of itself naturally if the proper relationships are established.

We teachers must demonstrate that we believe that the public school and the profession of teaching are fundamental to the development of democracy.

This requires that we re-appraise our understanding of what is meant by democracy. We may have been missing the spirit. We must dedicate ourselves again to that ideal. We must work with our immediate materials and techniques with a greater sense of the urgency of the outcomes or ultimate goals.

Each teacher should take advantage of the opportunity to serve as a recruiting agent for the teaching profession.

We should seek to promote ideals of service for every profession and civic calling. The choice of good teaching material cannot be left to chance. Where such material is found, we as teachers should guide and encourage such individuals to recognize their own qualities and to challenge these abilities in the field of teaching, for the challenge exists. We have a social responsibility.

On your way out of this meeting you will be given a copy of the Program of Action. Think it over; talk it over among your friends. Then, please, make a report of your suggestions to the committee representative in your school.

PROGRAM OF ACTION

The statement handed to each teacher at the close of the meeting was as follows:

1. Teachers must realize their influence upon the pupils' attitudes toward teachers and teaching.
2. The dignity of the individual child must be respected in order that he may understand that the educative process is vital and that the teacher's contribution is essential to the meeting of his needs.
3. The teacher himself should seek opportunities to affect the community's attitude toward the teacher and teaching.
4. We teachers must demonstrate that we believe that the public school and the profession of teaching are fundamental to the development of democracy.
5. Each teacher should take advantage of the opportunity to serve as a recruiting agent for the teaching profession.

SUCCESS

HE has achieved success who has lived well, laughed often and loved much; who has gained the respect of intelligent men and the love of little children; who has filled his niche and accomplished his task; who has left the world better than he found it, whether by an improved poppy, a perfect poem, or a secured soul; who has never lacked appreciation of earth's beauty or failed to express it; who has always looked for the best in others and given the best he had; whose life is an inspiration; whose memory—benediction.—*Dean Stanley*

Do You Section?

GRACE M. DAVIS

DO you section classes in your high school? None? Few? Many? More and more? Or does the asking of these questions stir you to apoplexy? Do you tell me that not only does your school not use sectioning, but you also can justify the refusal to do so on the basis of an educational philosophy? Strangely enough, so often this philosophy which disapproves of sectioning also disapproves just as heartily of classes made up of forty or more students. The teachers who want their classes segregated by an ability-grouping usually would be willing to "swap" the principle of sectioning in return for receiving classes of twenty pupils. But some administrative officers who base the failure to provide classes for the varying levels of ability on ideological reasons quite often conveniently overlook the fact that the students who are in oversize classes are obtaining few, if any, of the values which are supposed to reside in classes which have a heterogeneous grouping.

A NATURAL SHIFT

Yes, we section at Modesto High School in many departments. We do so nonapologetically, even pridefully. Far back are those days of 1929 when no basis of separation existed. Far back, too, are the days of 1936, when timidly we adjusted the English offerings into two groups: *English* and *Special English*. Less remote are the years of the later 1930's, when by means of after-school workshops of interested individuals, departmental gatherings, and faculty meetings, many teachers, holding all the various types of educational philosophy, attacked the problem of finding ways of adjusting individual pupils to the curricular offerings. Out of this period of discussion and experiment grew an ever deeper faith in the validity of the process of adjustment through sectioning. At the same time there came an

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ever-increasing demand to the administration that this technique be applied to all subjects offered in the fields of social studies and English. Each year during this period more efficient plans were perfected for reaching the aim of placing each student in the section for which he was fitted by his physical maturity, social development, intelligence, and past achievement record.

In 1940 another extension in the range of subjects to be sectioned evolved from teacher-thinking. The x, y, z sectioning in such fields of general education as English and the social studies was, teachers felt, no longer sufficient. A realistic appraisal of the Modesto High School situation indicated that there was a differentiation in the type of work accomplished by the vocationally minded registrants in typing classes and that done by those who had chosen this subject as an elective. Modesto High School now offers *Typing I* for students who can meet the highest achievement standards. *Special Typing* is scheduled as a terminal course. *Personal Typing* is presented in a series of short courses in order that noncommercial students may attain the minimum skill needed for personal use.

A more iconoclastic procedure (and no actual "breaking of idols" could have seemed more drastic to some teachers) was the inception of a process of sectioning by means of a double track in certain university preparatory subjects. How *naive* some of us are if we believe all students seeking admission to universities can travel at the same rate and under the same pressure. Students, who are enrolled in these preparatory courses, vary in the pace they can maintain and in their vocational aim. This aim, like an electric current, seems to act as a charge in speeding up successful accomplishment. Native ability of students and their interest in such specialized fields as foreign languages, sciences, and mathematics also influence the types of assignments given as well as their length. In the heterogeneously arranged classes in mathematics, the chemistry "majors" had highly technical assignments whereas the intelligent, earnest, but nonmathematically inclined girls, who were in the same class, needed a fuller explanation, much more drill, and sometimes a much slower pace. Eventually, at Modesto High School we found it wise to provide x and y sections in algebra, geometry, and Spanish even though in these classes we recognized that a process of screening out those uninterested in college entrance had already taken place.

THREE PRONOUNCED STEPS

Thus, a review of the procedures which Modesto High School has used in sectioning over a period of fifteen years will reveal that the movement from a system of heterogeneous to one of homogeneous grouping has come

about in three very pronounced steps. These occurred in this chronological order: (1) The adoption of a three-track curriculum for the required subjects in the province of general education. (2) The provision for a variation in the course offerings in certain specialized, terminal fields. (3) The scheduling of a two-track pathway in certain of those subjects for which students must enroll in order to meet the entrance requirements of universities. These steps in the sectioning process came about, it seemed to us, in a logical way and can hardly be considered as innovations. Our next step was more radical.

In 1945 the faculty agreed that our total offering of courses must be based upon the fact that Modesto High School must educate "all the children of all the people." With muttering and gnashing of the proverbial teeth, we reluctantly accepted the fact that some of our ninth-grade neophytes had but a second- or third-grade placement level when they reached the ninth-year course of study. We stopped resenting the presence of these entrants, many of whom had been graded as morons or dull normals. We began to look around for a solution to the problem. Instead of ignoring the situation, criticizing other people for its existence, or wearily bearing our burden, while "gripping" vociferously about the necessity of so doing, teachers at Modesto High School agreed to set up another sectioning pattern in the hope of meeting the very real needs of this part of our student personnel.

The introduction into the schedule of this new and very highly specialized pattern could be made more easily and much more happily casual because of the fact that students and teachers were so thoroughly accustomed to the use of the differentiated course offerings. Into a new three-hour "ungraded" program, we placed the students whom we acquired because of their physical and social maturity, regardless of any particular scholastic achievement. For several years other students like these young people had been coming to us bringing records of a grade placement ranging from 2.6 to 6.8; presenting records of IQ's which ranged from 58 to 79; and showing records of years of interrupted schooling. Less obviously, they carried with them the scars that come from being marked by years of frustration and scholastic futility. In a large, overcrowded high school you can well imagine that the enrollment of such registrants had been welcomed by many teachers with the chill applause which is only too obvious when present-day auditors hear the story of John the Baptist's head on the platter. There simply was no place in high school for these young people! Not even the sections set up for the mentally retarded were geared to their ability. The

subject-matter content, the available texts, and the required pace had been selected by teachers having in mind the ability of those students whose grade placement was not lower than that of a seventh-grade level.

This new division, the three-hour "ungraded" program, is yearly being better adjusted to the abilities of this special group. Careful selection of teachers who are sympathetic to the problem, the development of curriculum units, materials and aids, and the indoctrination of the faculty with an underlying philosophy applicable to this section, all these have been necessary. The courses now have regularly designated titles, such as *English*, *Civics*, *Practical Mathematics*, *Pan-American History*, and *Everyday Science*. Now this youngest child in the family of sections offered by Modesto High School can really walk on its own feet. He is no longer the anemic, malnourished step-child of education.

PHILOSOPHY

So much for the explanation of the ladder by which Modesto High School has moved up the various steps of a sectioning procedure. Perhaps it may help to give a brief discussion of the philosophy whereby we at the high school justify our actions. If that ladder which we know as sectioning rests on sand, we know that, when the rains descend and the winds blow, great will be the fall thereof. But we are sure the program is built on rock, not sand.

In the first place Modesto High School teachers believe that the advocates of plans of heterogeneous grouping need to make a realistic appraisal of the conditions that actually exist in classrooms, which have a membership of more than twenty-five students. Many of these, they will find, are totally dissimilar in life objectives, in mental maturity, and in interests and skills. Schools having this type of class organization seem to us to be following much the same practice by means of which cafeteria managers justify the placing of certain food items in the menu for consumption by all pupils on the ground that the offerings are wholesome, worth while, and generally acceptable. "What," says the cafeteria manager, "if dozens of the students have no appetite for the food? It's good food, isn't it? What if many others lack the digestive apparatus to handle the various items? Just let the body absorb what it can or reject what it cannot use. Why worry lest whole groups may chance to have peculiar dietary needs which are never being met nor even recognized as existing?" Most embarrassing would it not be for the manager if a diabetic person were poisoned by the excellent food?

Isn't there an analogy between the theory of the cafeteria manager and that philosophy used by those schedule-makers who refuse to accept the fact that in a crowded, modern high school all students do not, cannot, or will not assimilate the standard scholastic fare? We do not believe that students of high-school age cannot be trusted with a realistic acceptance of the facts that where there are individuals there are varying levels of abilities. If there does not exist in the school either a hush-hush policy about individual differences nor an overstress on the issue, students will act accordingly. The light, casual touch is as needed here as it is in any other human relationship. In a large school such a type of approach is easy to secure. Numerous sections for every period of every required subject must be scheduled in any case. If sectioning is carefully done, the student's feelings of belongingness, security, and importance are fostered, because there can be a group morale established and a fine rapport developed between individual student, other members of the class, and the teacher. Such a happy environment we have found occurs less often in classes where students have been slotted automatically and by happen-stance into any heterogeneous section.

However, we do agree with the idea that basic in any plan of good programming is the insistence that teachers and pupils must have a mutual respect each for the other and that differences in abilities and needs should never mark groups as "inferior" or "superior." We believe, too, that, since a student's confidence does grow in a deliberately set-up classroom in a climate which is conducive to self-respect and prideful achievement, such a quiet, unstrained, nonemotional environment should be provided.

Yes, sectioning can be so done as to meet the demands made by this basic educational philosophy. Yes, sectioning can be so prepared that the emotional, as well as mental, needs of children can be met. At Modesto High School we shall probably go merrily on our way sectioning more and more, and not less and less. We've planned it that way.

The Characteristics of a Good Student Council

WILSON H. IVINS

JUST what are the things that make one student council good; whose absence, results in another being bad? There are many things that help to build real councils, but of these many things, only two are really essential. The first of these is *democracy in the group* and the second is a *habit of action*.

DEMOCRACY IN THE GROUP

To be specific, what are the principles of the first essential, democracy, which is characteristic of the good student council? Wiser men¹ than the author agree that there are five basic principles whose application will make a student council democratic.

The first of these is the principle of *Personality*. This states that every person has basic merit and worth—that dignity and the respect of one's fellow men, when earned, is the birthright of every citizen of a democracy. Walt Whitman said it best in these words,

Whoever degrades another degrades me,
And whatever is done or said returns at last to me.
I speak the pass-word primeval—I give the sign of democracy;
By God! I will accept nothing which all cannot have their
counterpart of on the same terms. . . .²

In the student council, this means that each boy or girl fiercely resents and fights the efforts of any other member or group to override or make small any one boy or girl in the organization.

The second principle is *Participation*. This means taking part in *all*

¹ Although these principles are the common property of all who think about democracy, the writer wishes to acknowledge his debt to Professor W. F. Dyde, Colorado University, for pointing out Professor Joseph Cohen's (Colorado University) discussion of the first four and for adding his own interpretation of the fifth.

² Whitman, Walt, *Leaves of Grass*.

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of the work of the council. Members of a democratic student council fight for and use the privilege of sharing decisions and the responsibilities for decisions and plans with their fellow members. Many student councils overlook shared planning when they take part in the government of the school. Too often they desire to do something without thought of what they are doing or because they are merely inspired.

Closely related to participation is the third principle, *Reason*. This means, in a good student council, the use of informed intelligence, or good sense, in democratic social living. Under this principle, facts and information will be used intelligently. Lack of reason, information, and intelligence will bring about the ruin of a student council in the same way that they will make a real democracy, in our sense of the word, nearly impossible among unintelligent savages or among an uninformed nation of Japanese or Germans. We know such people must be taught to understand the benefits of democracy before we can hope to lead them to accept it in place of the autocratic systems under which they have lived.

The fourth principle is that of the *Material Good Life*. When we think about it a bit, we can see its possibilities for breathing real life into the student council. In high school the material good life means to most of us such things as clean and attractive classrooms, places and leaders for all kinds of leisure activities, and improvement of the lot of every student in the school. Student councils should consider the possibilities of improving the material good life of the school by staging a school beautification campaign, drawing the home rooms into school-wide projects for the total welfare of the students, or engaging in similar projects which will make going to the high school more comfortable, safe, beneficial, or pleasant. Studies have shown, for example, that the average cost to students of engaging in the full program of activities in a high school will often run as high as \$250 per year. Such expenses for activities, supposedly planned for all students, are essentially undemocratic because they bar many students whose only fault is a thin pocketbook. A really good student council could plan and back fund-raising projects and other means of eliminating such costs to students and really extend democracy throughout the school by such planning under the principle of the material good life.

The fifth principle is one which is easily overlooked. This is the principle of *Progress*—the American ideal of always moving forward. How many student councils have "gone to seed" because they were content to

follow blindly the lead of the first vigorous and original group of students who started the organization in their school!

"This is all very fine," one might say, "but what if our school board, our principal, or our teachers will not let us apply these principles?" That, indeed, would be a problem. We must recognize that there are today such school boards, such principals, such teachers. Fortunately for us there are not many of them. Fortunately, also, something can be done about them. High-school students are American citizens, even if they may not vote. The Bill of Rights alone states the five principles of democracy in such plain language and with such force in their protection that they may not be denied the council which really wishes to live them. Also, it must be recognized that principals and faculty cannot always help themselves when powers are withheld from councils. It may be necessary for student council members to recognize the interests of the home and community in what councils do. It may be necessary for them to win their rights in their own home and community.

Stating this problem brings us to the question of just what rights or privileges students should expect from the administration and staff of high schools, and especially what rights student councils might justifiably expect. Few will deny that the student council has a right to put the five principles, just stated, into effect. To say it another way, if working by these principles is a characteristic of a good student council, then any school has a moral obligation to make such a student council possible. Having won these rights, it is best for the student council to have and use definite powers granted and stated by the school, no matter how severely limited, than to attempt really constructive action on a basis of implied, hazy, or temporary powers.

This gift of the right to live in a climate of democracy in the high school, though freely given, is not one to be accepted without understanding and responsibility. Students must understand that first of all they cannot expect ever to govern their school or even to govern themselves completely during the period of their attendance. Wise lawmakers have entrusted the immediate control and government of the high school to the principal, who represents the administration and community, as they have always in our history delegated some parental powers to the school in the education of the young which make it possible to establish rules of conduct or discipline for youth. This regulation of the actions of individuals by established discipline of the whole group is one of the unchanging but, at the same time, least understood realities of democracy.

By so delegating these powers, the lawmakers have consistently recognized education as the most important human activity in our society. Thus, although students in high school have every reason to accept this gift of the right to *share* in the government of the school through applying and living these principles in the student council, they also have the obligation of recognizing that it is a gift which could be legally withheld, if not withdrawn, with moral justification. They have obligation, likewise, to accept the duties and responsibilities which always accompany such liberty. The establishment of the five principles of democracy in a student council is a two-way process involving the granting of rights and acceptance of responsibilities by both students and those in direct charge of the high school.

All these principles—*personality, participation, reason, material good life, and progress*—are very real, very down-to-earth, very important parts of this democracy which is always found in a good student council and without which no student council can be good.

HABIT OF ACTION

Let us now consider the second essential characteristic of the good student council, the *habit of action*. The good student council does things and it does them well. Although we may be interested in *what* a good student council does, we should be more interested in *how* it does those things.

Many times committee members—and the members of a student council are just that—feel that, if they meet regularly, state their own ideas, listen to others, and vote for the best, they have done their duty. But if ever a member steps back from himself and looks at the work^a of the group without personal feeling, he is likely to realize that they have, in fact, done very little except talk and vote. If the council has taken action, he may be somewhat surprised to discover that, although he thought he had expressed his own ideas and made his own contribution to the work of the group, actually he just talked to no effect, while the leader or some strong-voiced and persistent member of the council put *his* ideas into effect. Or this same observant council member may realize that, although he thought that he listened to the ideas of his fellows, actually he did not; instead, he became so wrapped up in his own ideas that he forced the council to accept them alone. In similar fashion it may become clear to him that the leader of the council

^a Ideas for this section on group dynamics in the student council has been freely borrowed and adapted from an excellent article appearing in *Educational Trends, Supplement to the Educators Washington Dispatch*, A.C. Croft, Publisher, Washington, D.C., January, 1948. The article compares the work of the typical committee with that of the Lilienthal Committee for the control of atomic energy. It expands with ideas for dynamic group action which are so vital that the article should be in the hands of every student council and other group working for a common purpose.

was so much of an "efficiency expert" that he led it to act unwisely simply to get something—anything—done. Or our critical council member may become aware of the fact that the council leader tried to be so much of a "good fellow" that nothing worth while was accomplished. If members of these councils realize that their actions are often like this, they will instantly understand that more than mere willingness to do things is required for successful group action. They will understand that preparation for leadership and for membership in organized working groups is absolutely essential. They will see that the *how* is often more important than the *what* in the program of work. They will look to the sponsor, the school faculty, the principal, and to all others who can help them to prepare for action.

This preparation for action in the student council may be as simple a thing as establishment and use of brief courses in parliamentary procedure. However, it is more likely to be much more comprehensive. This will mean preparation for and instruction in the procedures of group dynamics. Every good student council and every other effective group working together will come to recognize, as pointed out in a recent article⁴ that good committee members (and good student council members) do not necessarily make a good committee (or council); that effective group working methods can and should be developed; and that it has been demonstrated that the ineffectiveness of such groups has been the result of poorly prepared working members as often as of poor leadership. As the article suggests, a good leader of a committee (or student council) will know that he must help his group to do certain things effectively. Among these things which the good student council leader must *stimulate* the *council* to do are the following: to organize for work, to establish and continuously evaluate procedures for operation, to make a working situation which will encourage service and co-operation of the members, to seek and accept objective criticism by its own members for the betterment of the whole group effort, to discover and use the special abilities of its own members, and to seek ways to judge continuously the quality of its work and its outcomes. These developments when stimulated by good leadership are, in effect, the preparation for action which is held to be essential to the functioning of a good student council.

A final step in this preparation should be the appointment of someone who can criticize objectively the way the council acts. Only if the council has a chance to see itself as other qualified observers see it, can it hope to improve itself. Here, the wise council will see the real need for us-

⁴ *Op cit.*

ing the talents of a good teacher-sponsor. Indeed, if the council chooses to use the sponsor in this manner, the occasion for sponsor domination or interference will probably never arise. Furthermore, it is likely that the needed guidance of the sponsor can be brought to the council most effectively through his critical observations in this assigned role.

It should be obvious that, if these principles of group action are mastered, the need for living up to the five principles of democracy will be imperative likewise. Then, the next step for the council will follow quite naturally. The members must begin to act. As the council acts, three features of method will emerge. One of these will be "paced tempo" of action. This means that councils will move slowly at the beginning and build speed gradually instead of beginning with a rush and slowing down to the point of failure to finish the action. Second, the action will be described by a willingness—an eagerness—on the part of the council to rely always on the collection of all possible data and pertinent information before deciding matters. Finally, although the action of the council may be inspired at times, never will inspiration take the place of deliberation. There may be times when the action is fast, but never when it is unconsidered. *This is the method of action of a good student council.*

With these two basic characteristics, it is obvious that the good student council never has need to be told what to do. It will not be able to avoid doing things and doing those things well. Like the irresistible force of molten lava flowing upwards through fissures in the solid rock, the dynamic action of this student council will overcome the web of tradition, the deadly languor of inertia, and the scourge of student apathy to make the high school a better place to be, to learn, to play, to think, to dream.

Opinion Reactions in High School Follow-up Studies

STANLEY H. LORENZEN

HOW do school-leavers "feel" about their school experiences? What trends are apparent in the "feelings" of those leaving secondary schools after one year, five years, ten years? To what degree do high-school follow-up studies concern themselves with sampling the "feelings" of school-leavers? Answers to these questions should be of vital concern to those charged with the direction of educational programs. The way people feel about their own school experiences will determine to a degree the kind of support they render to public education.

METHOD

A survey of the literature on high-school follow-up studies since 1939 were made to determine the answers to these problems. In all, eighteen unselected high-school follow-up studies published since 1940 were reviewed.

FINDINGS

Concerning follow-up studies, Troyer and Pace state:

The techniques of follow-up study questionnaires have been of two major types. They have sought to find out the activities, behavior, or practices of the group being studied; or they have sought to find out directly the group's opinion regarding the values of previous educational experiences.¹

By far the major portion of all inquiries reviewed were concerned with data that could be objectively verified, such as earnings, marital status, military service, post-secondary-school education, promotions on job, duties on job, etc.

The Landy Study

Only six of the eighteen studies reviewed reported any investigation of the opinions of the subjects. In these six studies, the investigation in each case was limited to one or two questions tacked on at the end of the questionnaire or

¹ Troyer, Maurice E., and Pace, C. R. *Evaluation in Teacher Education*. Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education. 1944. 369 pp.

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interview. One noteworthy exception is the Occupational Adjustment Study by Landy.² A large portion of this extensive study concerns itself with opinions or feelings of the graduates toward their school experiences. The study included 914 youth who were out of school from 1.5 to 5.5 years; both withdrawals and graduates (who had gone no further in their formal education) were from three high schools in New Jersey and three in Connecticut. The data sources were primary interviews and included the youth, his family, school record, high-school principal, and employer. A community survey was conducted in each of the six communities. Following is a summary of the opinion questions asked with the results indicated. "Do you think the high school could have given you more specific training that would have helped you in getting and keeping (or finding and holding) your present job?"³ In the employed group 70 per cent knew of none, but 20 per cent of the group felt they lacked sufficient vocational skills. In the unemployed group 50.8 per cent knew of none, but 29 per cent of the group felt they lacked sufficient vocational skills. When asked to suggest a kind of education or subject matter that they thought would be of value, 39 per cent gave answers which were concerned with training in skills of a vocational nature, such as salesmanship, office machines, and skilled trades.⁴ When asked what single subject they found most valuable, over 61 per cent replied in terms of the use of the subject to them in occupational life, 25 per cent naming English, and over one-third naming specific-skill subjects in the commercial, agricultural, and industrial arts fields.⁵ When asked for their reasons for leaving school before graduation (which is an opinion question in the last analysis), 41 per cent said that they had left for "economic reasons;" 3 per cent said, "by request of school;" 13 per cent said, "could not get along with the teacher;" 25 per cent said, "wanted to work rather than go to school." Combining the last three items, Landy says 43 per cent left school before graduation because of "obvious maladjustments or lack of benefit being derived."⁶

Another area of opinion sampled in this study was the "effect of school experiences upon vocational planning while in school."⁷ Of the total group, 73.4 per cent said they had talked with *no one* while at school who had helped them to decide upon a choice of occupation. However improbable this sounds, the important thing is that is the way they felt about it at that moment. When asked if they had taken any subjects in high school which had helped them

² Landy, Edward. *Occupational Adjustment and the School. Bulletin*. Washington, D. C.: National Association of Secondary-School Principals. No. 93, Nov. 1940.

³ *Ibid.*, p. 44.

⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 44.

⁵ *Ibid.*, p. 45.

plan their careers, 57 per cent replied, "no"; 25 per cent named one subject; and 13 per cent "didn't know."⁸ When asked if they had taken any extracurricular activity which had helped them to decide upon an occupation, 7 per cent said "yes"; 80 per cent, "no"; and 13 per cent "didn't know."⁹ When given an opportunity to mention *any other* school experience which they thought might have helped them choose an occupation, about 75 per cent could think of none.¹⁰ Among the "other" experiences most frequently mentioned were, "work in school office or bank" or situations which were as near real job experiences as possible.¹¹

In reviewing the results of the opinion questions in Landy's study one must remember that he was trying to relate the questions to occupational adjustment; hence, we find few questions outside this area. The results indicate first a concern of youth during this period for vocational skills; second, a lack of appreciation of any vocational aspects or values inherent in the academic subjects with the exception of English. This suggests the necessity of direct teaching of the vocational values in general education. It would be interesting to determine if there have been any changes among graduates of more recent classes where there has been increased emphasis on occupational information and counseling. In summary, this study suggests the desirability of further relating the school experiences of secondary youth to the problems of life.

The Harding High-School Study

Another study¹² concerned with opinion on occupational adjustment was conducted in 1941 at Harding High School, Warren, Ohio. Among the eight stated objectives of the study are five which are concerned with opinion:

1. To investigate four major problems which are confronting the youth of Warren: (1) education, (2) employment, (3) guidance, (4) leisure time.
2. To study the experiences of local high-school alumni with a view to determining how the present educational program might be made to solve better the vocational interests of youth.
3. To determine if graduates in the city favor industrial training in the schools.
4. To ascertain if there is a demand for adult education.
5. To ascertain if there is a need for a high-school placement bureau.¹³

Questionnaires were sent to 2,222 drop-outs and 3,735 graduates, both male and female, who attended school from 1929-30 to 1938-39 inclusively. No mention is made of the percentage of replies, but the data would indicate it to be in the neighborhood of 1,000.

⁸ *Ibid.*, p. 45

⁹ ¹⁰ *Ibid.*, p. 63

¹² *Educational and Occupational Follow-Up Study*. New York: South-Western Publishing Co. Monograph 60. 1943

¹³ *Ibid.*, p. 1.

Following is a summary of the opinion questions found in this study. "What subjects did you take that were of most value to you?"¹⁴ Practical English ranked first; commercial subjects, second; math, third; and shop, fourth, with machine shop leading the list of shops. The data are further broken down by sex and course of study pursued, such as college preparatory, scientific, vocational, home economics, *etc.* "What subjects do you wish you had taken while in high school?"¹⁵ The rank order for boys for the first three places was commercial, shop, and math. The ranking subject for girls was commercial. Only slightly better than 50 per cent from the classical, scientific, and general courses indicated that they were satisfied with what they had taken as contrasted with better than 70 per cent of the girls in the vocational, commercial, and home economics courses. As the authors of this study point out,¹⁶ "... female students who had taken the scientific or classical courses felt the need of further training if they were to obtain work." The phrasing of the questions are extremely general in nature; consequently, the interpretation is questionable. However, for the purposes of this study, the point is not in the ultimate truth of the reactions, but how this group feels about their school experiences. Of those who had attended trade school, the question was asked, "Would you return to trade school if you had the opportunity?" Altogether, 74 per cent of the boys said they would return either full or part time, but only 57.2 per cent of the girls indicated that they would return.¹⁷ Again the question is loosely worded, but the results indicate a considerable confidence in the trade school on the part of its former students.

The Wrastler Study

Wrastler¹⁸ reports a long-term follow-up study of 618 youths, both graduates and dropouts, from 1925 to 1940 in a small high school in Indiana. He reports a 67 per cent return of questionnaires with a higher return from graduates than nongraduates and a higher return for girls than boys. Eight out of ten *thought* their high-school training had been "of considerable" or "of a great" amount of help in occupational adjustment since leaving school. One out of ten reported his high-school training as being of "no" help. The boys felt that math had been the most useful subject taken in high school, but the girls selected English. They were asked which of the subjects the school offered that they had not taken would have been most helpful. The rank order was (1) bookkeeping, (2) typing, (3) shorthand, (4) science, and (5) public speaking. The study itself is very meagerly reported, lacking a copy of the

¹⁴ ¹⁵ *Ibid.*, pp. 3-4.

¹⁶ ¹⁷ *Ibid.*, pp. 516.

¹⁸ Wrastler, A. R. "Long-Term Follow-Up of School Leavers." *Occupations*, 20:284-288; Jan., 1942.

questionnaire or a detailed account of procedure. Consequently, detailed interpretations are impossible. It should be noted, however, that the results seem to indicate a very favorable opinion of their school experiences on the part of these 618 youths. This is in contrast to some of the results reviewed above. It is suggested that there may be a relationship between this favorable attitude and the fact that the school is a very small one. Several writers have indicated greater satisfactions with school experience by graduates of the smaller high schools. The fact that math and English, both academic subjects, were selected as the most useful subjects might be considered in support of this idea.

Although the three studies cited above were conducted about 1940, the data were taken from youth who left or were graduated from school between 1930 and 1940. It is obvious that, during this period of economic depression, youth tended to evaluate their school experiences in terms of vocational skills and employability. It is interesting to contrast the results of follow-up studies made of youth who left school after the close of the depression.

The Weyland Study

Weyland¹⁹ reports a follow-up study of the graduates of a Michigan high school for the classes of 1936, 1941, 1942, 1945, and 1946. This study is almost completely concerned with the opinions of youths as will be seen from the purposes stated.

1. To obtain a basis for curriculum revision by determining what changes in high-school curriculum were advocated by graduates.
2. To determine what per cent of the graduates sought further education.
3. To determine need for increased vocational guidance and counseling services in high school.
4. To determine what per cent of the graduates are now following the vocations chosen in high school.
5. To determine the per cent of graduates now living in the local community.

A questionnaire was sent to 452 graduates with a return of 155 or 35 per cent. This study is important here because of the outcomes reported. They are as follows:

1. An increase in community and faculty interest in the total program of the school.
2. A revision of the high-school English program.
3. Eight new subjects added to the curriculum.
4. A counseling program instituted with four teacher-counselors.
5. Four additional teachers added to the staff.
6. Senior commercial students given an opportunity to work in local offices, afternoons and Saturdays, under the supervision of the high-school commercial department.

¹⁹ Weyland, Henry A., "A Follow-Up Study of the Students in Six Graduating Classes." *Journal Educ. Research*, 41:478 No. 6, Feb. 1948.

As a record of a research study, Weyland's report leaves a lot to be desired. No copy of the questionnaire used in the study was included in the report. For our purposes, however, it is important to note the drastic results (cited above) accruing from this study in the particular school concerned.

The Searle Study

In Utica,²⁰ New York, a questionnaire was sent to the ninety-seven commercial graduates of the class of 1945. Replies were received from eighty-one. This study had been carried on each year since 1941. Comparative data are presented for the five years on: (1) present occupations, (2) distribution of graduates in various commercial fields, (3) weekly salaries, (4) post-secondary education, (5) source of placement, and (6) employer. In addition, three areas of opinion were investigated: (1) extent to which school training helped graduates with job, (2) ways in which school could have helped more, and (3) desire for a new position. The results are not considered worthy of presentation here because of the extreme informality of the report which makes interpretation impossible. It is interesting to note, however, this example of a follow-up study being made for the use of only one department of the school.

The Whipple Study

One of the most recent studies is reported by Whipple.²¹ A questionnaire was sent to 824 graduates and dropouts of the classes of 1942, 1944, and 1946, with 36 per cent replying. Of this group, 5.0 per cent felt they were working in jobs for which they had had *no* preparation in high school; 31 per cent felt they were working in jobs that had *no relation* to their high-school training; and 20 per cent indicated a need for guidance. A need for additional community recreational facilities was shown. Few were interested in any community organization except church. To the question: "To what extent did your high-school course give you useful information in the following fields?" the following rank order replies resulted: (1) formal education, (2) religion, and (3) civics and world affairs. The choices were presented in the form of a checklist, but just what is meant by "formal education" is obscure. The following opinion question produced an interesting result. "If you could repeat your high-school education today and be free to choose any kind of study, what would you like to learn?" Almost all the courses desired were already being offered in the school, indicating a need for guidance in the selection of courses. Home economics and vocational industrial courses had the highest frequency

²⁰ Searle, Ora. *How Are Our Commercial Graduates of Utica Free Academy Employed?* Utica, New York, 1946. 14 pages. Mimeo.

²¹ Whipple, C. E. "A Study of High School Graduates." *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*. 32:165-171, April, 1948.

of mention. Again, in this study, the phrasing of the opinion questions was loose and one has to question the interpretation given the results in the report.

Other Studies

Studies by Cramer²² in 1939, by the Seattle Public Schools²³ in 1941, by the Vermont State Department of Education²⁴ in 1942, and by Oppenheimer and Kimball²⁵ in 1948 contain no reference to opinion questions. Leonard and Eurich²⁶ review six follow-up studies in their book dealing with an evaluation of modern education. It is interesting to note that they found nothing in the nature of opinion worth quoting from these studies. Pace²⁷ reports interesting variations of the follow-up questionnaire in an exhaustive study of college graduates. He presents the following clever check list of socio-civic affairs:

Please place an x in which you engaged during the last year.

- 1.....I voted.
- 2.....I campaigned for one or more election candidates.
- 3.....I signed one or more petitions to be presented to government officials.
- 4.....I wrote a letter to a government official or newspaper about a social, economic, or political problem.
- 5.....I attended meetings of a political club.
- 6.....I borrowed books from a public library.
- 7.....I attended one or more public musical concerts.
- 8.....I was a member of a church organization.
- 9.....I gave aid to the Community Fund, Red Cross, or similar agency.
- 10.....I carried public-liability auto insurance.
- 11.....I deposited money in a bank.
- 12.....I was involved in a legal dispute.

This appears to be a promising instrument for the measurement of the results of education and could be well combined with opinion questions in the structuring of future follow-up studies.

Lindman²⁸ presents an interesting tabulation on the per cent of replies in follow-up studies. In general, he finds an inverse relation between the rank in class and the per cent of replies received. It varies from an 82.3 per cent return for those in the highest decile to a 54.6 per cent return for those in the lowest decile. None of the studies reviewed above had their results adjusted for their factor.

²² Cramer, Buell. "Follow-Up of High-School Graduates," *Occupations*, Vol. 18., Dec., 1939.

²³ *After Graduation What?*. A survey of the 1940 Graduates of the Seattle Public Schools. Seattle, Washington. 1941. 32 pages. Mimeo.

²⁴ *Community Occupational Survey*. State Dep't. of Education, Montpelier, Vt., 1942. ph., 33 pp.

²⁵ Oppenheimer, Celia, and Kimball, Ruth. "Ten Years Follow-Up of 1937 Graduates." *Occupations* 26:228-234. Jan. 1948.

²⁶ Leonard, J. P., and Eurich, A. C. *An Evaluation of Modern Education*. New York: D. Appleton Century Co. 1942.

²⁷ Pace, S. Robert. *They Went To College*. Minneapolis: Univ. of Minnesota Press. 1941. Pamphlet.

²⁸ Lindman, Erick L. "The Adequacy of Follow-Up Samplings," *Occupations*, 19:33-35, Oct., 1940.

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

With the exception of Landy's study, the research on follow-up studies is poorly reported. In most of the other studies, those parts dealing with opinion questions are loosely worded and difficult of interpretation. There are very few attempts to make extensive surveys of opinion in this area. This is disappointing because opinion, as shown in Landy's study, is valuable and can be determined with some reliability. As might be expected from the natural bias of the opinion studies cited, needs are established for more vocational guidance and training. Again and again, we find that youth expects occupational adjustment to stem from his educational experiences. Also we find a consistent pattern of occupational maladjustment among the many who pursued the college-preparatory courses, but went no further in their education. This leads one to suggest that the problem of the secondary school is not alone with the nonacademic student as stated by Patrick,²⁰ but with the academic student who does not go on to post-secondary training.

To know what our former students feel about their school experiences is enlightening. There is need for an intensive investigation of opinion that is much broader than any reviewed in this paper. It should sample many areas of educational problems such as the following:

1. Which do you think should be the basic goals or objectives of education in high school? (check list)
2. How much freedom do you think students should have in running their own activities?
3. The average cost per year to the town for educating each pupil in "X" high school is \$xx.xx. Do you think this is too much? Too little? About right?
4. Should we continue to give homework?
5. What changes would you suggest in the extracurricular program? Physical education program?
6. What changes would you suggest in the daily schedule?
7. Do you feel school time should be given to work experience for all students who want it?
8. Would you be willing to serve on the local school board if approached?
9. In planning a new high-school building, what things, that are not now provided, would you advise including (considering cost)?

²⁰ Patrick, Robert B. "The Most Pressing Problems of Principals," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*. No. 83, pp. 4-26, May, 1939.

News Notes

THE NAVY'S OCCUPATIONAL APPROACH.—Approximately fifty thousand young men are entering the Armed Forces of the country each month. This huge input of personnel has focused attention of the nation's educators on their guidance responsibility. Many have sought factual information to relay to their students. Particularly, they have wanted occupational information, free from "ballyhoo" and sentimentalism. To meet this demand, the Navy has prepared the *United States Navy Occupational Handbook*, which is being distributed to the schools throughout the United States. This 144-page, illustrated handbook is made up of 62 Vocational Information Briefs covering the major job-family groups of the peacetime rating structure. Four additional briefs are included to supply information of advancement from Recruit to Petty Officer, Commissioned Officers, Women in the Navy, and the Naval Reserve. A complete packet of these 66 monographs is presented with each handbook for individual use and filing. Each brief gives the following information: (1) What the job is, (2) Duties and responsibilities, (3) Work assignments, (4) Qualifications and preparation, (5) Training given, (6) Path of advancement, (7) Related Navy occupations, (8) The subdivisions or emergency service ratings, and (9) Related civilian jobs.

A unique feature is the "School Subject Index" for educational guidance. In addition to listing the subjects valuable as preparation for all the Navy's career fields, it also has application to related civilian occupations. Suggestions for using the book and the briefs are included in the introduction, along with other information valuable to counselors. The book is designed to assist school authorities, vocational counselors, teachers of occupations courses, vocational instructors, librarians, home-room sponsors, assembly directors, club leaders, and others who may want help or information in presenting the Navy's program to interested individuals or groups of students.

The book is prepared for use in conjunction with a duplicate packet of unbound monographs which are distributed with it. The Navy hopes that counselors will use the bound volume as an office manual and that they will place the single separate briefs in their general files under their respective job categories. Librarians, too, are urged to make similar use of the material through filing the individual monographs in their respective classifications. This will enable the individual who seeks information about various trades to find what the Navy has to offer within the field of his interest. The Navy has planned the monographs to be of value, not only to point out its own occupational structure, but also to illustrate the work of comparable jobs in civilian life. It illustrates the variety of occupations available and the contributions which the Navy can make to school career days, guidance workshops, or vocational institutes.

The *United States Navy Occupational Handbook* can be used in the classroom in several ways. For example, the course of study in occupations provides for units in a number of fields such as electronics, radio, machinist, metalsmith, mechanic, or aviation. In the case of aviation, the teacher will find, by referring to the hand-

book, that the Aviation group (Briefs No. 47 to 59) gives a comprehensive picture of the types of auxiliary duties and training essential to flying. The individual monographs will enable the instructor to obtain a series of reports from various students, or the material may be assigned as collateral reading. There is a section on Related Civilian Jobs in each brief, thus giving suggestions for additional information.

The handbook was written under the direction of Lt. Comdr. Richard Barrett Lowe, USNR, School and College Relations Officer, in co-operation with the Billet and Qualification Research Division, Bureau of Naval Personnel and with the counsel of the Occupational Information and Guidance Service of the United States Office of Education. A number of Naval Reserve officers drawn from the fields of education, guidance, and personnel work were recalled to active duty to give the Navy the benefits of their advice, experience, and skill.

In the fall of 1947 the Navy stated its recruiting policy for the secondary schools. This was developed in consultation with and endorsed by a number of leading educators. This policy is reprinted in the Occupational Handbook, which is being presented to the schools in conformance with that policy. Initial distribution to the junior and senior high schools of the country was made on the following basis: 1000 or more pupils—3 books and 3 sets of briefs; 400 to 999 pupils—2 books and 2 sets of briefs; 100 to 399 pupils—1 book and 1 set of briefs; 99 pupils or fewer—1 book.

WASHINGTON STATE COUNTY SUPERINTENDENTS MEET.—Washington State county superintendents, who met in Olympia, November 7-11, for their annual convention, advocated in workshop discussions that educational planning be done a generation ahead and not for but a school term.

Superintendents, their deputies, and district superintendents, who attended the conference, numbered more than 300. A meeting of the Department of Administration and Supervision of the Washington Education Association was held during the conference. Discussions centered on long-time planning of school finances, legislation, guidance services, instructional materials, in-service education, and general administrative problems. It was stressed that only by careful planning can the utmost in education be offered to children. The superintendents also emphasized the importance of recognizing individual differences in children and in developing individual qualities. Evening sessions of the conference were devoted to viewing motion pictures and kodachrome films, in informal get-togethers over coffee, and social mixers.

A STATEMENT OF PHILOSOPHY.—The following statement of philosophy was prepared by the faculty of the D. A. Harman Junior High School of Hazleton, Pennsylvania: Democracy, here and abroad, is under attack. With these violent attacks being made on democratic institutions, both by groups of people at home and abroad, our task in the schools becomes very clear. It should be to emphasize the positive contributions of democratic living to our worth as individuals and the erection of signposts and direction markers to the goal of full realization of the promise of Democracy.

The growing criticism of our educational procedures, the attack upon our schools today from many sources, and a definite need for agreement among educators themselves have created a situation that demands serious consideration.

The schools are an agency of the type of society in which we live. They must, therefore, aid in the orderly evolution of a democratic society into an even better democratic society. We must constantly challenge ourselves and our pupils to continued study, broader thinking, and a better understanding of other peoples with more tolerance toward other nations. We must all co-operate in every way to prepare the children of today, who will be the future citizens of tomorrow, to be ready to meet these changes.

Much current literature, popular and professional, is giving a great amount of publicity to the so-called new methods of instruction. Much of this publicity has implied the assumption that these techniques are new, revolutionary, and radically different from instructional methods used in the schools and vastly more effective.

Reading these claims for superiority, many uncritical laymen are beginning to lose faith in the effectiveness of public school education. The tax-paying public and especially those who have children in the schools are in need of a careful interpretation of the aims and functions of the children's school.

MINNESOTA HIGH-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS' BULLETIN.—Each year the Association of Secondary-School Principals of the State of Minnesota publishes a bulletin setting forth in brief style some of the major happenings in the schools of the state. This bulletin is sponsored by the Minneapolis Division of the Association, and the articles are written by administrative personnel of the Minneapolis Public Schools, principals who are Division members, or by faculty members representing them. In the October, 1948, publication, the authors have set forth in concise form programs or procedures in which they have participated and which they think are important enough to call to the attention of other members of the group. The materials for this issue of the bulletin have been collected and arranged by a committee composed of L. Edmond Leipold, Leonard A. Fleenor, and Harry H. Maass, *chairman*.

USING MAPS.—Popular Science Publishing Company, Audio-Visual Division, has recently released a new filmstrip series, *Exploring Through Maps*. This filmstrip series on map study was produced in co-operation with the World Book Encyclopedia. The series is curriculum-keyed for 5th, 6th, and 7th grade geography and social study classes. The first strip in the series, "Maps and Their Meanings," in color, presents basic elements of directions in relation to youngsters' everyday experiences and explains the use of symbols and color as aids in reading maps.

The remaining three strips in the series are black and white. "We Live on a Huge Ball" explains the difficult concept of latitude and includes many discussional and "participating" frames; "Flat Maps of a Round World" clarifies the concept of longitude and presents various types of map projections representing the globe; and "Maps and Men," which reviews the entire series, shows many exam-

ples of maps used in business, recreation, travel, the study of history, geography, etc. Accompanying the four strips in *Exploring Through Maps* is an illustrated *Teaching Guide* in which are reproduced all the frames in the series. The series with the Guide is priced at \$16.50. For further information, write Popular Science, Audio-Visual Division, 353 Fourth Ave., New York 10.

OCCUPATIONAL INFORMATION.—Occupational Index, Inc., New York University, New York 3, New York, has released a number of occupational guidance pamphlets available for 50 cents each. Among these are:

Air Line Stewardess—A new six-page pamphlet about the job of the air line stewardess, by H. Alan Robinson. It is based on information compiled from a survey of 15 commercial air lines. It presents briefly an outline of the history of the work, its nature, future prospects, qualifications, and preparation demanded by air lines, training, methods of entrance and advancement, earnings, number and distribution of workers, discrimination, unions, advantages, and disadvantages. Included are an appraisal of the available literature, sources of further information, and a brief bibliography.

Airplane Mechanic—This six-page leaflet contains information on future prospects, nature of the work, qualifications, preparation, training, requirements for licensing by CAA, earnings, advantages and disadvantages, unions, number and distribution of workers, methods of entrance, and advancement. Included are an appraisal of literature, sources of further information, and recommended reading references.

Department Store Work—This pamphlet contains information about history of department stores, future prospects, nature of work with brief notes on the variety of employment available, qualifications and preparation needed, methods of entrance and advancement, earnings, advantages and disadvantages, unions in the field, and number and distribution of workers. It also contains appraisal of literature, sources of further information, and reading references.

NEW INSTRUCTIONAL FILMS.—Coronet, 65 E. South Water, Chicago 1, Illinois, announces the release of the following new films. Each of these sound-motion pictures are 16-mm. and are one reel in length and in black and white or color. They may be secured through purchase or lease-purchase for \$90 in full color or \$45 in black and white. They are also available through the nation's leading film-lending libraries. For a complete catalog or further information on purchase, lease-purchase, preview prior to purchase, or rental source, write to: Coronet Films, Coronet Building, Chicago 1, Illinois. These releases are:

Energy in our Rivers—For centuries the quaint old waterwheel turned a grindstone to sharpen man's tools—a millstone to grind his grain. Today massive dams and hydro-electric plants, backed by huge reservoirs of water, furnish electricity to cities and factories—furnish water that turns miles of desert into rich farmland. The story of old and new uses of this type of energy is unfolded in detail.

Pioneer Home—What was a pioneer home really like? How did pioneer people live? What part did children play in the everyday life? These are some of the questions which are answered in this educational film.

Winds and Their Causes—An introduction to the subject of winds and their causes.

Algebra in Everyday Life—With emphasis on these three basic algebraic steps: (1) observation, (2) translation, (3) manipulation and computation—this film shows how algebra is used in everyday life as well as in specialized fields.

How To Be Well Groomed—This film shows how two young people improve their personal appearance through constant attention to good grooming habits. It demonstrates to students the four fundamentals of appearance: good health, good posture, cleanliness, and neatness.

Capitalism—A radio forum presented by a group of high-school students.

Your Family—The story of a happy family—the Brents—developing an appreciation and understanding of the family as a social unit and the role of the individual in that unit.

A Visit To Ireland—A tour to the Emerald Isle.

Life in a Fishing Village—The colorful village of Gravarna, Sweden, typical of fishing villages the world over, is pictured as a means to have students gain a better understanding of the part such a village plays in the world community today.

Modern Hawaii—Hawaii as it lives and prospers.

Basketball for Girls—Fundamental Techniques—Combining fast-action and slow-motion photography, skillful players, and basketball know-how, this film demonstrates fundamental techniques of ball-handling, passing, and shooting. It emphasizes the value of practice and importance of individual skill to team success.

Basketball for Girls—Game Play—The finer points of this sport are demonstrated.

Softball for Boys—Slow-motion photography is used to analyze the individual player skills, and the principles of team play are developed in actual game situations.

Safe Living at School—With emphasis on three basic safe-living principles: courtesy, good housekeeping, skillful and correct actions, this motivational film helps to develop proper concepts of *Safe Living at School*.

Build Your Vocabulary—A story which vividly portrays a vocabulary failure and shows how it is turned into a success.

MUSIC FOR ALL.—Making the benefits of musical training available to every school child will be an objective in 1949 of Kiwanis International and its 2,840 clubs in America. This was announced by Kiwanis headquarters. Working in cooperation with the American Music Conference, Kiwanis is recommending that the Committee on Boys and Girls Work in each club adopt the advancement of music and cultural activities in the schools as part of a suggested six-point program of action. This activity will bring grass-roots support behind AMC's public-

service program to bring the benefits of music to millions of Americans. In planning the action program for music, the International Committee on Boys and Girls Work said, "There is an untold wealth of undeveloped talent in every community. Nothing brings greater satisfaction to individuals or groups than the development of these talents in youth. No child should be deprived of the opportunity because of financial inability."

To provide clubs with ideas and to stimulate activity, the International Committee suggested the following: (1) Survey your school system to determine the availability of facilities for music and other cultural training; (2) Encourage the teaching of basic music courses in schools. Suggest that your school board seek adequate funds for this program and help it obtain these funds; (3) Obtain literature on a unified program of music advancement from the American Music Conference, 332 South Michigan Avenue, Chicago 4, Illinois; (4) Provide teaching and instruments for individuals as well as groups; (5) Assist in music festivals and amateur art exhibits; (6) Provide necessary equipment, uniforms, transportation, etc., for school orchestras and bands; and (7) Recognize talented individuals and groups by bringing them before your club.

The American Music Conference will co-operate by making available material that will help individual clubs in their various projects. Such materials will include a manual on setting up school and community programs, questionnaire forms, case histories on successful music programs, prepared speeches, and publicity releases and articles dealing with various phases of music. The AMC, a nonprofit educational organization, will also urge its several hundred supporting members throughout the country to work with local Kiwanis Clubs and help them in every way possible.

FILM ON JUVENILE DELINQUENCY.—At the suggestion of the National Youth Month Committee and the National Conference on Prevention and Control of Juvenile Delinquency, RKO-Pathe has devoted one issue of its *This is America* series to the problems of prevention and control of juvenile delinquency. This picture, "Who's Delinquent?," is now ready for release and will be shown in the theaters throughout the country. The National Conference on Prevention and Control of Juvenile Delinquency worked closely with RKO-Pathe in the making of this picture both in terms of script and interpretation. In addition, the original script was submitted to several of the national social welfare organizations and in so far as possible their suggestions were incorporated into the final production. A screening of the final picture was held for national agency representatives in New York City. To have this picture shown in a local theater, contact should be made with the local theater for play-date information.

PHONOGRAPH RECORDS ON SHAKESPEARE PLAYS.—A limited edition of high fidelity, unbreakable phonograph records, featuring important scenes from the works of William Shakespeare as produced by the Festival Players of the Shakespeare Memorial Theater, Stratford-Upon-Avon, England, are available from Britain Agencies, Inc., 247 Fifth Avenue, New York 16, New York. The new recordings (12-inch) of scenes from *The Tempest*, *The Merry Wives of Windsor*, and *Richard the Second* were recorded and made in the very cradle of Shakespear-

can art. The price is \$15 postpaid for *Richard the Second* and \$12 each for the other two. A special price for three complete sets (ten unbreakable records) with albums is \$35 postpaid, plus 10 per cent Federal excise tax on each.

KENTUCKY FOREIGN LANGUAGE CONFERENCE.—The second University of Kentucky Foreign Language Conference will be held March 31-April 2, 1949, with the theme *Foreign Languages in Democratic Education*. The lecturers will be Dr. Walter V. Kaulfers, Professor of Education and Specialist in Foreign Language Curricula, University of Illinois (Romance Languages); Dr. M. Blakemore Evans, Professor Emeritus of German, Ohio State University (Germanic Languages); and Dr. Hubert McNeill Poteat, Professor of Latin, Wake Forest College (Classical Languages). In addition, some fifty papers will be presented in general and sectional meetings by scholars and teachers from various parts of the nation. The first Conference on April 22-24, 1948, drew some 300 registrants, representing more than 100 schools and colleges and nine languages, from seventeen states. Professor Jonah W. D. Skiles (Classical Languages) is Director of the Conference, and Professors Adolph E. Biggs (Germanic Languages) and L. Hobart Ryland (Romance Languages) are Associate Directors. Programs may be had from Professor Skiles, Frazee Hall 102, University of Kentucky, Lexington, Ky.

16-MM. FILMS ABOUT BRITAIN.—The following four 16-mm. films are available on a rental basis through the British Information Services, New York offices, 30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York 20, at the prices indicated:

Top Liner (22 minutes—Rental \$2.50)—The world's largest ocean liner, *Queen Elizabeth*, was launched during the war and served as a troop transport for the duration. Superbly refitted, she made her first voyage as a passenger ship in October, 1946. The staff and crew are so efficiently organized that the 83,000-ton ship can carry 2,314 passengers across the Atlantic in maximum comfort and can be prepared for the return voyage in two days.

Edinburgh Festival of Music and Drama (10 minutes—Rental \$1.25)—The Festival offers a great deal to people of all tastes. Famous artists give chamber music concerts, and several symphony orchestras perform. There is opera and Highland dancing.

K.R.O.—GERMAN, 1947 (11 minutes—Rental \$1.25)—Made for the Control Commission for Germany, this film explains the work of a Kreis Resident Officer—a Kreis being one of the sections into which the British Zone is divided for administrative purposes. The ruins, refugees, shortages, smugglers, and hoarders—all these have to be coped with to the best of his ability.

River Tyne (12 minutes—Rental \$1.25)—The film describes the river from its source near the Scottish border, past Newcastle, to the sea. Now the center of many modern industries, the river has a rich historical background, which includes the Wall built across Britain by the Romans and the Medieval fortresses built as defenses against the Scots.

CAN WE MEET THE CHALLENGE?—What are we doing to sell our schools to the public? The United States is spending only about one and one-half per cent

of its national income on education. This is a small amount of money when we consider what we are spending for other things. Most of these taxpayers were enrolled in our schools only a few years ago. If they are sold on the importance of education, I wonder why they are not willing to spend more money for education today. Have we provided an educational experience which will make them feel responsible for improving our schools? Have we been careful of all our personal contacts with these former students so that they will be friendly to educational institutions? Do they understand the place of education in a democracy?

I believe each of us should examine our schools in the light of this situation and see what we may do to improve this condition. Students should be made to understand that they are going to have the kind of schools that they and their parents want. I believe that we should analyze ourselves and see what we can do rather than place the entire responsibility on the public because we are the ones who have control of the situation. I know that most of us are sold on our profession or we would not stay in it. Education is the hope of the world. Without good schools, democracy will never succeed. The world looks to us for democratic leadership. How are we going to meet this challenge?—Homer M. Davis in the November, 1948, *Seattle [Washington] Principals Exchange*.

SOME THINGS THAT EVERY CHAIRMAN SHOULD KNOW.—Here are some pointers for the local association officer who doesn't want to be Chairman of the Bored:

[1] Never start a meeting without an agenda—a list of things to be covered by the meeting. An agenda saves time.

[2] State the purpose of the meeting at the beginning and read the agenda aloud.

[3] Keep the meeting moving. Just as a meeting is seldom any better than its chairman, so it is seldom any more productive than the interest of its participating members. Interest flags when action lags. If you are a chairman, keep the meeting moving.

[4] Speak clearly. If you are the chairman, you are the spearhead of the meeting.

[5] Prevent general hubbub. When everybody talks at once, nobody can be heard. When nobody can be heard, nothing can be accomplished. Insist on order.

[6] Avoid talking to individuals without talking to the group. Side conversations between the chairman and individual members disrupt a meeting.

[7] Keep the speaker talking clearly and audibly. If a member asks for the floor and is given it, it is up to you to see that he makes proper use of it. Interrupt him if necessary and have him repeat what he has said, if you have the slightest suspicion that not everyone has heard him.

[8] Sum up what the speaker has said and obtain a decision. Not all members will be good at expressing themselves. It is up to you to determine what they have said and whether or not it has been understood—and get the decision of all members on the topic.

[9] Stop aimless discussion by recommending committee study. Occasionally subjects are discussed on which general agreement at the time cannot be reached.

On such occasions, submit the matter to further study by a committee—which you appoint.

[10] Keep control of the meeting at all times without stifling free comment. Invite criticism and even disagreement. Also ask for support. And clarify issues by obtaining majority support.

[11] Don't argue with the speaker. Ask questions if you disagree. But remember—you, as chairman, are supposed to be neutral. No matter how ardent you feel, let the meeting make the decision. You're conducting a symphony, not playing a solo.

[12] If you have a comment, or feel called upon to take part in partisan discussion, ask for the floor as a participant.

[13] Don't squelch a troublemaker. Let the meeting do it—call such troublemaking to the attention of the whole gathering. Again—you must remain impartial. It's the duty of the meeting to pass judgment—not yours. Let the group pass judgment not only on the issues but also on the conduct of individual members.

[14] Be aware of the participants' comfort—temperature-wise, thirst-wise, etc. Members of a meeting are human beings. They are subject to physical laws as well as to your authority. Your meeting can accomplish more if all the members are comfortable and have all their physical needs attended to. Be sure there is enough light, enough air, enough water, and enough ash-trays.

[15] Check at the end of the meeting to see if every member feels his particular subjects have been adequately covered.

These are the observations of a person who sat in many meetings. They are propounded for those who would rather be right than Chairman of the Bored.—Walter Weir. [Reprinted from *Printer's Ink*, September 5, 1947.]

BOY SCOUT ANNIVERSARY WEEK.—From February 6 to 12, 1949, the Boy Scouts of America with its membership of a million and a half boys will celebrate its 39th birthday. The theme for the week will be *Adventure—That's Scouting*. Emphasis will be given to the following:

1. Adventure in Fun and Fellowship—Scouting as a game—wholesome companionship.
2. Adventure in the Out-of-Doors—Emphasizing adventures in the open.
3. Adventure in Special Events—Stressing public interpretive activities.
4. Adventure in Citizenship—Civic Service Emphasis, Emergency Service Training.
5. Adventure in Leadership—Recognizing the Scout Leader—providing opportunity for parents and community to do him honor.

Schools, churches, and civic clubs will, during the week, help the Scouts to celebrate the occasion in various ways which will help to further their own objectives. Many elementary, junior, and senior high schools may wish to consider the possibility of developing special programs and exhibits during the week which would be Scout flavored and which will help to focus attention on citizenship participation by youth. For these, suggestions may be secured from Boy Scouts of America, 2 Park Avenue, New York 16, New York.

DIRECTOR-GENERAL DESIGNATE OF UNESCO TALKS TO PRESS IN PARIS.—Dr. Jaime Torres Bodet, Director-General designate of the United Na-

tions Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization, affirms his belief in the purpose of Unesco to contribute to world peace and security. Referring to the present world situation, he said that without undue optimism and despite the grave difficulties facing Unesco, he was convinced that these efforts would meet with success if governments and nations co-operated sincerely and purposefully to the common task. Replying to questions on measures to be adopted in the administration and programme of Unesco, he said that his first impression was that the administrations and programme of Unesco, he said that his first impression was that the programmes of Reconstruction and Fundamental Education were among the most important of the projects for 1949. Of all the Specialized Agencies of the United Nations, Dr. Torres Bodet felt that Unesco has more direct influence on the individual. The aim of Unesco, he said, is not only to stimulate the work of cultural leaders but also to bring them in closer contact with the individual in order to raise the conditions of the masses of peoples throughout the world.

THE KUDER PREFERENCE RECORD.—Revision of the Kuder Preference Record—Vocational—was developed so that counselors might direct a student's attention toward those job areas which are particularly promising in the light of his preferences. An improved version of the Kuder Preference Record is now available for use. In addition to the nine areas of Form B, the new edition, Form C, includes an important new scale on outdoor occupations—fields in which over ten million people find employment. Other advantages are a verification scale which indicates whether the subject has followed directions carefully; additional data on eighty-eight occupations; and new profile sheet which provides a quick, convenient way of explaining what the scores mean. For complete information, write to Science Research Associates, 228 S. Wabash Avenue, Chicago, Illinois.

TEACHING STUDENTS TO USE COLLEGE AND SCHOOL CATALOGUES.—Do the students in your school make full use of college and school catalogues? Do they know how to use such catalogues? A number of good suggestions on teaching students to use school catalogues appeared in the *Guidance Chronicle* (November, 1947) and briefed in *Guidance Index* of Science Research Associates, 228 S. Wabash Ave., Chicago 4, Illinois.

Students need certain information in order to choose a school appropriate for their needs. Although this information is generally given in the school catalogues, one must know how to go about finding it. A project on using school catalogues, therefore, fits very well into the counselor's program. Such a project would have three main objectives: (1) To teach the students what type of data they need to make a decision between schools; (2) To teach them how to secure these data from the school catalogues; and (3) To stimulate them to make more use of school catalogues. Methods suggested are:

1. As the first step, each student should send for two or three catalogues.
2. The catalogues obtained should represent different types of schools.
3. When the catalogues arrive, a group discussion can bring out the following points:
 - a. The name of the school—indicates whether it is a college, university, or vocational school; a state-supported or a private school.

- b. The address of the school—distinguished between schools with identical names.
- c. The school calendar.
- d. Faculty members and their degrees—serves as an important criterion for evaluation.
- e. History of the institution or general statement about such items as diplomas or degrees offered, special training techniques, the campus and buildings, and membership in accrediting or approving agencies.
- f. Entrance requirements.
- g. Cost, scholarships, loan funds, and self-help plans.
- h. Courses of instruction and departments of study—tells whether or not the school offers the type and amount of work students need and want.
- i. Index for other details.

4. Student committees can organize notebooks or card files summarizing the different types of information.

5. Further activities might include setting up a cross-reference file in which cards filed by occupational title refer to schools offering the necessary training.

16-MM. MOTION PICTURES ON JOURNALISM AND NEWSPAPERS.—The November, 1948, (pages 3; 15) issue of the *School Press Review* contains a bibliography of 16-mm. educational motion pictures that relate to journalism and newspapers.

EDUCATION FOR HOME FAMILY LIVING DISCUSSED IN NEW BULLETIN.—*The Family Today*, Bulletin 350, is the title of a new bulletin just published by the Department of Public Instruction, Lansing, Michigan. Designed to "suggest to people how they can have a more happy and satisfying personal and family life," the bulletin attacks the problems of young married folk, new parents, families growing up, teen-agers and young adults, and adults in the middle years and beyond. Its suggestions apply to schools, discussion groups, and various types of organizations and agencies found in the average community. Questions for discussion are indicated and brief, but ample bibliographies suggest sources and ways for finding the answers. Numerous examples are cited to indicate how the problems have actually been met in various Michigan communities.

TEEN-AGE EMPLOYMENT.—The trend in teen-age employment, as studied by the National Child Labor Committee, based on the nation-wide census of 1940 and April samplings since 1944, is as follows:

	14-15 Years	16-17 Years	Total
March, 1940	209,347	662,967	872,314
April, 1944	850,000	1,950,000	2,800,000
April, 1945	1,000,000	2,000,000	3,000,000
April, 1946	750,000	1,500,000	2,250,000
April, 1947	630,000	1,340,000	1,970,000
April, 1948	610,000	1,430,000	2,040,000

More recent figures, from the labor force survey of October 3-9, 1948, show more than quarter of a million additional young people at work—717,000—of 14 and 15 years and 1,584,000 of 16 and 17 years. October figures are usually higher than

those of April and probably include fairly large numbers of vacation workers who have not yet terminated their summer employment whether on a full-time or part-time basis. But the October, 1948, figures are slightly higher for both age groups than those of October, 1947. This, together with the rise last April, suggests that the increase in the employment of young workers reflects the existing general upward trend in employment.—This excerpt is taken from the Annual Report (24 pages) for the year ending September 30, 1948, entitled "Child Labor After Ten Years of Federal Regulation," published by the National Child Labor Committee, 419 Fourth Avenue, New York 16, New York; Gertrude Folks Zimand, General Secretary.

AWARDS FOR RESEARCH.—Pi Lambda Theta, a national association for women in education, announces two awards of \$400 each, to be granted on or before August 15, 1949, for significant research studies in education. An unpublished study may be submitted on any aspect of the professional problems and contributions of women, *either in education or in some other field*. Among others, studies of women's status, professional training, responsibilities and contributions to education and to society, both in this country and abroad, will be acceptable. No study granted an award shall become the property of Pi Lambda Theta, nor shall Pi Lambda Theta in any way restrict the subsequent publication of a study for which an award is granted, except that Pi Lambda Theta shall have the privilege of inserting an introductory statement in the printed form of any study for which an award is made.

A study may be submitted by any individual, whether or not engaged at present in educational work, or by any chapter or group of members of Pi Lambda Theta. Three copies of the final report of the completed research study shall be submitted to the Committee on Studies and Awards by June 1, 1949. Information concerning the awards and the form in which the final report shall be prepared will be furnished upon request. All inquiries should be addressed to the chairman of the Committee on Studies and Awards, ALICE H. HAYDEN, University of Washington, Seattle 5, Washington, *Chairman*.

JUNIOR COLLEGES WILL NEED 30,000 NEW TEACHERS.—The rapid expansion of junior colleges and technical institutes offers unusual opportunities for a teaching career in these schools during the next ten years. There will be a minimum need for more than 30,000 new teachers during that period of time. These are among the findings of a survey just completed by the American Council on Education.

To find out something about the outlook for teaching jobs in four-year colleges and universities, *The Career News*, published by B'Nai B'Rith, Washington, D. C., polled several experts in the field of college teaching. On the basis of the volume of inquiries for teachers they received in the past year, it is believed that there are shortages in the physical sciences (physics, chemistry, etc.) bacteriology, zoology, mathematics, economics, geography, and in the Slavic languages.

Here are some of the important facts regarding the junior college situation. The American Association of Junior Colleges estimates that enrollment in these schools jumped from 200,000 in 1940 to 400,000 in 1948, a 100 per cent increase. That this upward trend will continue for some time is shown in a recent poll of

state boards of education on estimated increases in enrollment in the next ten years. The twenty boards that replied looked for a further increase of 100% in the number of students in publicly-controlled junior colleges and technical schools. The Council draws this significant conclusion: "Even if the growth should be no greater than the 20 states have estimated, they alone will need all the 30,000 called for in this bulletin, for expansion and replacement."

CHANGE IN FILM DISTRIBUTOR COMPANY.—The *16 Millimeter Reporter* has been absorbed by the Charles VerHalén Jr. Publications which include *Film World*, *TV World*, *Church Films*, *Business and Tele-Films*, *School Films*, and *Film and Industry Directory*. The new company serves in all editorial and advertising matters, on behalf of the above-mentioned business magazines and year-book. The address is Film World, 1819 Broadway, New York 23, New York.

ARTICULATION OF SECONDARY AND ADULT EDUCATION.—Education should be a continuous, life-long process. Educators have said that for years. Yet the attitude and atmosphere around most high schools is that education ends with graduation except for those who go on to college. The "commencement" concept in thinking and behavior of students, faculty, and community alike marks high-school graduation as the sharp terminal point of systematic education for most youth.

Ideally, if principles of growth were followed, transition from full-time school to full occupational life and homemaking would be gradual. The principle of work experience in the late high-school years is becoming increasingly accepted. For all youth not continuing their studies full time, whether because of drop-out or graduation, there is every reason for involving them in some systematic out-of-school youth or young-adult program.

From their first days in school, children should live in an atmosphere which expects that systematic education will be life-long—that they are a matter of course will maintain some part-time connection with the public schools and other sources of intellectual stimulation long after education ceases to be a full-time occupation. Principals are the key people to see that such expectancies are built, although adult directors can do much, too. Here are some things suggested by the Adult Education Division of Secondary Education of the Federal Security Agency, Office of Education, Washington 25, D. C., that both can do to bring about a closer articulation:

1. See that all teachers and other staff personnel are fully acquainted with the local adult education opportunities
2. Train teachers to develop in youth the concept of life-long education
3. Be especially sure that guidance people know about adult education opportunities
4. Arrange for pertinent data on drop-outs to flow from the guidance department to the director of adult education
5. Encourage seniors to get a taste of adult education
6. Encourage secondary-school teachers to use adaptations of adult methods
7. Help high-school people to develop long-term educational plans
8. Explain to seniors the opportunities in the adult education program—the richness—the flexibility—the fun

3. Plan the continuation of high-school interest groups
10. Design and develop special activities to meet the needs and interests of out-of-school youth

SPORTS DOMINATE SCHOOL NEWS.—The December, 1948, issue (page 142) of *Illinois Education* contains an article by J. Russell Steele reporting a study of 21 representative Illinois daily newspapers in which he ascertained the total number of inches devoted to school news as well as the distribution of this educational news into eleven types of school news. Following is a table showing the order and percentages of these eleven types of school news in these 21 Illinois daily newspapers:

<i>Type of News</i>	<i>Column Inches of Space</i>	<i>Per cent of Total School News</i>
1. Sports	5,294	55.4
2. Parent-Teacher Association.....	875	9.2
3. Student Activities.....	757	7.9
4. Teachers	731	7.6
5. Administration, and Board of Education.....	496	5.3
6. Health and Safety.....	476	4.9
7. Patrons and Parents.....	249	2.7
8. Socials	246	2.6
9. Miscellaneous	237	2.5
10. Buildings	148	1.5
11. Honors and Awards.....	42	.4
Total.....	9,551	100.0

IMPORTANCE OF HOME MOVIES IN EDUCATION.—As a result of the vast strides which have been made in audio-visual training techniques, the home movie is rapidly becoming one of the most powerful tools in our American education system. Today, more than 200,000 16-mm. projectors are in use—about 30,000 of them in schools, 13,000 in churches, and the remainder in homes, clubs, and industry. The camera industry now has capacity to produce 16-mm. projectors at the rate of over 100,000 a year, a considerable increase over previous annual output.

Along with the increase in projector production, there has been material growth in the number and variety of films available to home movie-machine owners at nominal rental fees. The wealth of subject matter ranges from topics on scientific agriculture to treatment of juvenile delinquency, from industry and manufacturing to life in Tibet. Visual education some years ago began to assume importance as a dynamic and effective doorway to learning. The armed forces utilized the medium extensively in training recruits and specialists. Social workers long have endorsed the home movie as a powerful instrument in fighting juvenile delinquency. Churches are among the most intensive users of educational films. Audio-visual education is becoming such a vital force in our grade schools and colleges that many universities now are conducting special departments for research into new and broader use of the medium. The Bell & Howell

Co. of Chicago feels that the day is not too far distant when the home movie (silent and sound) will be an important factor not only in teaching in our country but also in spreading the democratic way of life throughout the world.

NATIONAL COLLEGE SCHOLARSHIP PROGRAM.—Seven principles for legislation to establish a national scholarship program for college and university students have been developed by the Department of Higher Education of the National Education Association. The scholarship bill, under bipartisan sponsorship, will be introduced in the 81st Congress, according to Dr. Ralph McDonald, Executive Secretary of the NEA Department of Higher Education. "The bill," he added, "is not to take precedence over, or side-track in any way, the movement to secure Federal Aid to the states for elementary and secondary education. As the college and university branch of organized education, we shall support such Federal aid legislation as the number one Congressional measure for education. But we shall work simultaneously, with every resource at our command, for the enactment of the scholarship program for higher education." Principles which the NEA Department of Higher Education will urge as a basis for the scholarship legislation include:

1. The program must involve no possibility whatever of Federal control or pressure upon higher education, either upon the institution or upon the student.

2. It must be administered at the state level by a committee or an agency which is nonpolitical and arises from the educational and civic interests within the state.

3. Scholarships must be awarded on the basis of ability, with only the highest one fourth or one third of high-school graduates being eligible.

4. The student must be entirely free to choose any accredited institution, public or private, and elect his own field of study without interference or pressure.

5. The stipend must be at least \$400 or \$500 annually to insure that the economic barrier will in reality be broken down. The student must be free to use his stipend for tuition, for board and lodging, or for any necessary expense in actual pursuance of a higher education program.

6. The formula for distribution of Federal money to the states must be sound and equitable and must provide objective safeguards against any discrimination in scholarship awards because of race, creed, sex, or other social circumstance.

7. The administrative and financial provisions at the national level must be such as to insure that the money goes to its intended purpose, without fraud or partiality.

Department officials estimated that a minimum appropriation for the first year of operation of the scholarship program would require \$100,000,000. This amount, they said, would "open college doors to 200,000 to 250,000 able students."

The Book Column

Professional Books

BYRD, O. E. *Health Instruction Yearbook, 1948*. Stanford, Calif.: Stanford Univ. Press. 330 pp. \$3.50. Like its five annual predecessors, the *1948 Yearbook* is a compendium of current information culled from health articles published during the year. The briefed material, totaling 308 items, is organized into twenty chapters, each preceded by explanatory comments. The Foreword is by Ray Lyman Wilbur, Chancellor, Stanford University. During 1947, death rates in the United States declined, eight diseases attaining all-time low marks. There is an estimated need for 10,000 to 14,000 more psychiatrists. School health programs show a lack of well-trained persons. These are only a few of the significant developments in 1948's *Yearbook*. The *Yearbook's* organization of material and the very large field it covers recommend it as a teaching tool and as a reference for public health workers, nurses, and others interested in the maintenance of public health.

CHAMBERS, M. M. *Youth-Serving Organizations*. Washington 6, D. C.: American Council on Education. 1948. 174 pp. \$3.00. The third edition of this widely used handbook appears exactly a decade after the first edition (1937). It was one of the numerous and noted publications of the American Youth Commission, which functioned from 1935 to 1942. Since then the Committee on Youth Problems has continued to carry on certain phases of the Commission's work and sponsors the revision. Descriptive data on membership, purpose, activities, publications, staff, and finances are presented for some 250 organizations, largely in the words of their own officers. The focus is necessarily limited to the national level. Developments in international organization are of extreme interest and import and are now in a particularly fertile stage, but could not be treated in this volume except as some of them enter incidentally.

COOPER, D. H., compiler and editor. *The Administrator of Schools for Better Living*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press. 1948. 167 pp. \$3.50. This is volume nine of the proceedings of the Co-operative Conference for Administrative Officers of Public and Private Schools. It presents the 15 papers prepared for the morning sessions. These articles present the writers' views concerning the relationship which should exist between education and the major areas of living. The articles treat on education as an instrument for social process, the Sloan Foundation experiments, health, citizenship, international peace, personal and community development, emerging concepts of family-life education, the school as a force in moral and spiritual education, administrative leadership, and teacher education.

HAND, H. C. *What People Think About Their Schools. Methods and Values of Opinion Polling as Applied to School Systems*. Yonkers-on-Hudson 5, New York: World Book Company. 1948. 223 pp. \$2.52. This book is a practical handbook for educational administrators in that it provides information on the techniques and materials of opinion polling in school systems. After pointing out the value of having an accurate picture of the opinion of the community and the loss of time

and the inefficiency inherent in guesswork, the author goes on with a detailed discussion of each step in the process of gathering and interpreting data. The questions contained in the inventories are analyzed, and the significance of various possible responses is explained. Considerable attention is given to the evaluation and integration of related data. One whole chapter is devoted to the application of the related findings of different inventories in a specific city situation. The complete text of the four separate inventories—one for parents, one for teachers, and one each for pupils in upper elementary and secondary schools—is given in the form of appendices. Thus all the information, instruction, and material necessary for a successful conduct of an opinion poll is presented in one convenient and compact volume. The book makes a valuable contribution to successful modern public school administration and will be of interest to anyone in that field.

The Metric System of Weights and Measures. New York 27: National Council of Teachers of Mathematics, 525 W. 120th St. 1948. 320 pp. \$3.00. The metric system has made increasingly important contributions to all activities involving measurement in science, commerce, industry, education, military science, sports, and daily life. Its simple and integrated decimal relationships make possible clearer visualization of measurements, greater speed and accuracy in computation, and freer interchange of knowledge as well as of manufactured products through the use of uniform units. In the field of education alone, it is estimated that one year of school time could be saved for each child by substitution of the metric system for the traditional heterogeneous measures. This Yearbook, prepared by a committee of the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics, supplies a comprehensive view of metric usage at the present time as reported by some sixty individuals and numerous organized groups active in widely varied fields, and by the American press. It surveys the history, nature, and advantages of the metric system and offers specific programs for its adoption both in general use and in the classrooms throughout the United States and the British Empire, which alone in the civilized world have not yet made this change to integrated and uniform weights and measures.

OSBORN, ALEX. *Your Creative Power.* New York 17: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1948. 389 pp. \$3.00. Each of us has two thinking minds—a so-called judicial mind and a creative mind. This book sets forth about 100 ways to make our creative mind do more for us. The style is readable; the ideas, understandable. One authority has adjudged it the most "valuable" work on creative thinking he has ever read. This is a book for men and women in every walk of life. It is full of help and inspiration for every active individual.

PRATT, CAROLINE. *I Learn From Children.* New York 20: Simon and Schuster. 1948. 218 pp. \$2.75. Is there any reason why the school shouldn't fit the child rather than the other way around? The author asked herself that question many years ago, after taking teacher-training courses given by professors of pedagogy and watching the indifferent success of traditional classroom methods. This book is the story of her problem, her faith, and her success. It is the story of a woman who devoted her life to educating children effectively by methods which were considered heretical when she started. It is an appealing story even for readers

who believe in traditional schooling techniques. They may well find themselves learning from the author what she learned from children.

SORENSEN, HERBERT. *Psychology in Education*. New York 18: McGraw-Hill Book Co. 1948. 549 pp. \$4.00. Like the previous edition of this text, the present revision stresses the dynamic and functional approach to educational psychology, offering a simple, straightforward presentation and development of topics related directly to the educational process. Considerable emphasis is placed upon growth, development, and adjustment; and there are extended treatments of physical growth, social growth, mental growth, and the emotional life and adjustment of the pupil. The interrelationship of these phases of growth are pointed out, and the educational importance of the increase with age in capacity to learn from natural growth is emphasized.

Now the author offers a complete revision of the entire book, with much new, up-to-date material. The chapters on growth and development and those on mental health and personal adjustment have been completely rewritten. There is a new chapter on the mental health and personal adjustment of the teacher. All topics are developed in terms of the school and social situations. The revisions, changes, and new materials add particularly to the emphasis on growth and development—physical, mental, and social—on mental hygiene and personal adjustment of both pupil and teacher, or individual differences and guidance, and on teaching and learning.

WILLIAMS, R. D., and POOLEY, R. C. *The Teaching of English in Wisconsin*. Madison: University of Wisconsin Press. 1948. \$3.75. In recent years the teaching of English has been severely criticized. On every hand we hear that pupils do not learn to speak and write effectively, or even correctly. Some have laid the blame on the teaching staff itself; others, on the curriculum or the teaching methods in use. The criticisms range from the assertion that the curriculum is old-fashioned and dull to the charge that too little emphasis is placed on formal grammar. That there is some truth in these charges no thoughtful person can deny. But before the remedy can be found, it must be determined just how valid each allegation is, and why instruction is not more successful.

To this end the authors, with the co-operation of many state educators, undertook the English Language Survey in elementary and secondary schools in Wisconsin. Specifically they proposed: to analyze the curriculum—the aims, materials, the methods employed in city, village, and rural schools; to establish the place of the individual branches of study—grammar and usage, composition, oral English, and literature; to judge the professional preparation, experience, and competence of English teachers; to discover the quantity and quality of materials used, including texts, reference works, periodicals, and books for general reading. In short, the survey proposed to determine how, by whom and with what success English is taught in Wisconsin public schools.

BOOKS FOR PUPIL AND TEACHER USE

ALLEN, J. E. *Newspaper Designing*. New York 16: Harper and Brothers. 1948. 488 pp. \$6.00. The value of the book is twofold. The first part provides a comprehensive survey of the historic background and past development of newspapers, and

of the fundamentals of sound newspaper design. In this section the author outlines first the general problems of page size, news head selection, news body faces, spacing, feature heads, illustrations, front-page make-up. He then focuses upon the particular techniques of editorial, sports, financial, radio, and other special pages. Part I likewise includes a careful discussion of advertisement placing and display and the various reproduction processes. In Part II the author interprets the recent trends and achievements of news presentation. He analyzes the effective work that has been done in recent years and, from his conclusions about the major lines of improvement today, charts the probable course of tomorrow's newspaper craftsmanship. The book is illustrated with over 250 examples of type faces, heads, layouts, and designs.

ANDERSON, R. G. *The City and the Cathedral*. New York 3: Longmans, Green & Co. 1948. 349 pp. \$3.50. This is the story of Paris and its Cathedral of Notre Dame in the thirteenth century, the most colorful of centuries. It is told by a vivid recreator of times past in many books, chief among them the dramatic panorama of history, *The Biography of a Cathedral*. That story is here carried on more intensively in a lively settling-down to a hundred year's visit within the walls of the bright capital by the Seine.

As We See Russia. By Members of the Overseas Press Club of America. New York 10: E. P. Dutton and Co. 1948. 316 pp. \$3.75. This book is divided into four parts: (1) Aspirations: The nature, motives, and effect on the peoples concerned, of Soviet expansion; Russia in international affairs; (2) The People: Close-up stories of the people of the Soviet Union and how they live day by day; (3) The System: How the Soviet system works on various levels—in the home, in the factory, on the farm, in propaganda, in cultural affairs, in the schoolroom, in the Soviet Army, etc.; and (4) Delusions: Four important stories dealing with Russia between 1921 and the present, which concern misconceptions by and about the Soviets. On the basis of their first-hand experience and seasonal analytical training, these noted foreign correspondents answer authoritatively and from many points of view the fateful question: What makes the Soviet tick? The authors of this book have lived and worked in Russia and Russian zones and have individually won imposing reputations throughout the realm of journalism as painstaking, courageous American reporters.

BAILEY, R. E. *Sea Hawks of Empire*. New York 10: E. P. Dutton and Co. 1948. 256 pp. \$2.50. John Davis, quiet scientist though he was, led a life of never-ending adventure. In 1587 we find him aboard the little leaking ship, *Ellen*, threatened by crushing icebergs off Greenland as he seeks a northwest passage to India. A few years later his ship, the *Black Dog*, helps in the destruction of the Spanish Armada in the harbor at Calais. Again, in 1598 he sails with the drunken Dutch navigator, Cornelius de Houtman, for Sumatra where de Houtman is killed in battle. Davis's final voyage is with Captain James Lancaster aboard the *Red Dragon* on the first expedition of the newly organized East India Company. Alone, or as a continuation of *Argosies of Empire*, here is an epic of international trade written with sound knowledge and drama of a high order for all who love the sea and the adventures to be found on it.

- BAKER, MARY, and BRIDGES, WILLIAM. *Wild Animals of the World*. Garden City, New York: Doubleday and Co. 1948. 271 pp. \$4.95. The book contains descriptions and pictures (100 in color) of 252 wild animals of the world. The pictures are remarkable for detail. The descriptions portray each animal in size, habitat, peculiarities, and temperament with interesting comments from first-hand experience.
- BERRY, ERICK. *Seven Beaver Skins*. Philadelphia: John C. Winston Co. 1948. 287 pp. \$2.50. This is a story packed with strange adventures of the Hollanders who established themselves along the silver stream of the untamed Hudson, where the little colony of New Netherlands was founded. The story revolves around Kaspar de Selle, a falconer of old Netherlands. Kaspar pledged his services for seven beaver skins to pay for his voyage to the new land and took along a falcon as a gift for the patroon, Jeremias van Rensselaer. Thus, the sport of falconry plus a valuable knowledge of beaver skins and other pelts was brought to America. Kaspar and his cohorts described in this story are fictional, but Peter Stuyvesant, the doughty old warrior of the wooden leg, the van Rensselaers, and others are straight from history.
- BERRYMAN, O. L. *Pioneer Preacher*. New York 16: Thomas Y. Crowell Co. 1948. 256 pp. \$3.00. Everyone in La Mesa, Texas, was important to Baptist preacher George Carroll Berryman; and his daughter's story reveals the sympathy, tolerance, and true Christian spirit which he brought to human problems. This biographical narrative of Texas in the early 1900's is a vivid, human story of the West as it really was and of a man whose courage and wisdom helped make it what it is today.
- BEST, HERBERT. *The Long Portage*. New York 17: Viking Press. 1948. 256 pp. \$2.50. This is an early American novel of the French and Indian War and the battle at Ticonderoga. Young Phil, an orphan who used to hang around the New York waterfront, runs off and joins the Yankee forces. Eventually he becomes a member of the renowned Rogers' Rangers and a protege of Lord Howe, a wonderful and unforgettable leader who is brought very much to life in this story. The book is not only historically accurate but also full of excitement—spies, Indians and narrow escapes. The dramatic beauty of upper New York State, its lakes and rivers and thick forests, makes for a magnificent backdrop.
- BETHERS, RAY. *Can You Name Them?* New York 22: Aladdin Books. 1948. 48 pp. \$1.75. This is a new kind of book, a pictorial-informational quiz that will be of interest to adults as well as to teen-agers. It answers hundreds of questions about ships, trees, birds, fish, trains, etc.
- BINGHAM, HIRAM. *Lost City of the Incas*. New York 16: Duell, Sloan & Pearce. 1948. 279 pp. \$5.00. In 1911, the author made the amazing discovery of Machu Picchu, Lost City of the Incas—a discovery now recognized as the most spectacular single achievement in the field of South American exploration. The complete story of that Peruvian adventure, and of subsequent exploration, is now presented for the first time in one volume and represents the fruit of nearly forty years' work. It is one of the most fascinating stories in the literature of exploration. Much new material has come to light since the first reports of Senator Bingham's great find.

As a result, the author has revised his interpretation of the history and significance of Machu Picchu.

BROWN, PAUL. *Pony Farm*. New York 17. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1948. 94 pp. \$2.00. This is a story of life on a pony farm, how the children had fun with the ponies, and how they enjoyed watching the ponies and their colts. The book is illustrated with drawings by the author who made the sketches on a Shetland pony farm owned by one of his friends.

BROWN, VERNE. *Moby Dick*. (Adapted). Chicago 11: Scott, Foresman and Co. 1948. 317 pp. \$2.00. This great classic has been simplified so that it can be read and understood by boys and girls who otherwise would not be able to enjoy it. Language and concepts have been controlled so that students will be able to read without frustration and get meaning out of what they read. With the exception of 165 terms of the sea (which are clearly explained in footnotes), the vocabulary of this version of *Moby Dick*, say the publishers, has been kept within the first 2500 words of Thorndike's *Teacher's Word Book*. Lengthy descriptive passages and tedious explanatory paragraphs have been briefed so that the plot is easy to get hold of and follow through from the first chapter to the last. Numerous pen-and-ink drawings by Seymour Fleishman help to encourage student interest in the reading of the text; they make even more vivid the glamour and adventure of the whaling industry as it was in Captain Ahab's time. Large, type, dramatic endsheets, short reading lines, and footnotes aid the reader.

CASTOR, HENRY. *The Spanglers*. Garden City, New York: Doubleday and Co. 1948. 308 pp. \$3.00. Using the Pennsylvania Dutch region around Lancaster as a backdrop, the author has written a story of family life during the nightmare years of the Civil War. There was Pop Spangler—tall, round-faced, amiable. Pop was vague in business, but with Maria, his courageous little wife, managed to make the American House a modestly prosperous hotel; Frank, the studious, helpful, older son, joined the Army as the war progressed, but not until he won the unstinting love of Frieda Meredith; Charley Spangler, the youngest boy, joined the Army, too, but only to escape punishment for his wild escapades; and the two girls—Althea, with her shrewd, scheming husband, and Clayanna, with her bashful suitor, completed the closely knit family group. The scenes of the campaigns and battles of the Civil War carry the mark of careful research; and the dramatic events that touched the lives of the Spanglers back in Lancaster during this period are well handled.

CHILDS, HERBERT. *Way of a Gaucho*. New York: Prentice-Hall. 1948. 429 pp. \$3.00. The dominant theme of this novel is the battle for personal freedom against the encroachment of civilization. In the book, Poncho Colorado champions the poor and terrorizes the *gringos* with his band of outlaws. It is the story of the passing of an era and a way of life that was characteristic of Argentina in the last quarter of the nineteenth century when settlers were fencing off the spacious pampas and plowing up the land.

COMMINGER, H. S., editor. *The St. Nicholas Anthology*. New York: Random House. 1948. 564 pp. The book contains many carefully selected articles that proved so

popular to youth as they appeared in that famous magazine *St. Nicholas*. Here are stories, poems, and pictures as they appeared in the magazine that for generations gladdened the hearts of children—and, for that matter, of adults as well. Some of the selections include Dorothy Canfield, Alfred Tennyson, Bret Harte, Sidney Lanier, Jack London, Louisa M. Alcott, E. Vincent Millay, Stephen Vincent Benet, Cornelia Otis Skinner, and Theodore Roosevelt.

COOMBS, C. T. *Teen-Age Adventure Stories*. New York 10: Lantern Press. 1948. 254 pp. \$2.50. Here are tales of the wide, open spaces, sweeping winds, and billowing seas. The volume contains interesting stories of teen-age boys and girls braving the perils of the elements in search of adventure. Illustrated.

CRITE, A. R. *Three Spirituals from Earth to Heaven*. Cambridge: Harvard Univ. Press. 1948. Pages unnumbered. \$3.95. Three of the best loved of America's Negro spirituals—"Nobody Knows the Trouble I See"; "Swing Low, Sweet Chariot"; and "Heaven"—are interpreted by brush-and-ink drawings which translate musical rhythm into visual rhythm. Where the sung spiritual creates cumulative dramatic tension by repeated variations on a musical phase, the artist lays increasing stress on the central idea of his pictorial sequence, each drawing dependent for its full power on its relation to those preceding and following it. Small drawings on left-hand pages echo the character of the large illustrations and act as a further connecting link from phase to phase of the hymns' progression.

CRUMP, IRVING. *Teen-Age Boy Scout Stories*. New York 10: Lantern Press. 1948. 250 pp. \$2.50. Here are stirring stories of scouting written by the editor of *Boys' Life Magazine* published by the Boy Scouts of America. Each story is written around the lives and deeds of Boy Scouts and their thrilling, exciting adventures while living up to the highest ideals of the Boy Scout Code. Many illustrations are also included in the book. Illustrated.

FARLEY, WALTER. *The Island Stallion*. New York: Random House. 1948. 255 pp. \$2.00. This is the story of Steve Duncan's discovery of Flame, the stallion with blazing red hair, and of a lost world—the Azul Island. A sequel to this story will be written for the readers of this book if they will let the author know that they would like to have him continue the story of Steve and Flame. The author will publish another book, *The Black Stallion and Satan*, in 1949. So far he has written three other books about Black Stallion—*The Black Stallion*, *The Black Stallion Returns*, and *Son of the Black Stallion*.

FELSEN, H. G. *Bertie Takes Care*. New York 10: E. P. Dutton and Co. 1948. 184 pp. \$2.50. It was the Idiot's Delight (triple decker ice cream, chocolate sauce, whipped cream, bananas, nuts, and cherries) at Frubbler's drug store that was Bertie's undoing. Minus quite a few pounds he might have been a camp counselor for the summer, too, along with Ted Dale and Wiggins Hackenlooper, Heeble High's powerhouse fullback. As it was, no choice remained to Bertie but to stay in town and be trailed by his brother Bart who was nine and a terror. However, Bertie made the best of his misfortune. He rounded up some of the town's unhappiest ragamuffins, organized a camp of his own, and before the summer was

over had the satisfaction of seeing his team beat some of the snobbery and egotism out of the baseball nine at Camp Ijoboko.

ORMAN, HARRISON. *Changing China*. New York 16: Crown Publishers. 1948. 348 pp. \$4.00. To inform Americans of conditions and developments and of the forces in operation in China today, the author has written this illustrated factual account. It includes a thorough survey of the historical background requisite to the understanding of the present and the foreseeable future. Every element of Chinese life is described in detail: the organization of the family, the problems of language, education, transportation and communication, resources, commerce, industry, agriculture, food, ethics, and religion, with special attention to the many peoples and races of China.

FRANK, PAT. *An Affair of State*. Philadelphia, Pa.: J. B. Lippincott Co. 1948. 256 pp. \$2.75. With wit and humor, the author tells the story of outspoken Jeff Baker who came out of the war with a determination to work for our State Department and finally landed in 1949 as third secretary with our embassy in Budapest, a listening and observation post behind the Iron Curtain.

Funk and Wagnalls Editorial Staff. *New Desk Standard Dictionary*. New York 10: Funk and Wagnalls Co. 1948. 960 pp. Plain, \$3.50; thumb-indexed, \$3.75. This dictionary contains 100,000 entries, 850 illustrations, plus useful tables and lists: aids to secretarial practice; a comprehensive coverage of synonyms, and antonyms; an appendix of 12,000 geographical forms; biographical data; and a list of abbreviations. As an aid to pronunciation, this book uses emphatype, a trade name. This is the use of the underscore to indicate accent. Through this use, the eye interprets its significance from the familiar use of the underscore in marking emphasis.

GARWOOD, DARRELL. *Crossroads of America*. New York 3: W. W. Norton and Co. 1948. 331 pp. \$4.00. The story of Kansas City is, in large measure, the history of the country for the last one hundred years. The city stands at the place where the nation's historic borderline crossed. Here, literally, was where the West began, where the trails, wagon caravans, and river boats met and divided and mountain men and traders said good-bye to the civilized United States before taking off for the unknown. And the city also stood squarely on the border between North and South and its countryside was battleground before the Civil War. This is the story of Kansas City in terms of personalities. Out of the currents of change and conflict that surged through the region, the author has taken certain strong individuals, certain salient episodes and connected them into a narrative whole.

GIBBS-SMITH, C. H., editor. *The New Book of Flight*. New York 11: Oxford University Press. 1948. 288 pp. \$5.00. This contribution to the literature of flight presents, on an original scheme, a complete survey of aviation as it exists today and is likely to develop in the future, with particular emphasis, naturally, on British and Empire achievement. A distinguished team of experts has contributed a series of articles on such topics as the Rocket, Jet Propulsion, Radar, Helicopters, and Flight Refueling, each of which is as up to date as it is possible to make it. But the editor has also a sense of history and has included several articles

which look backward into the past and attempt a review and re-assessment of the country's achievement in aircraft development. Since one of the principal aims of the book is to encourage air-mindedness among younger people, it was felt that full information should also be given about possible careers, and there are articles outlining opportunities in the R. A. F. and the Fleet Air Arm and in the aircraft industry.

GOERTZ, ARTHEMISE. *The Moon Is Mine*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co. 1948. 304 pp. \$3.00. Pat Eagon wanted the moon in spite of Pop's warning that she might find it made of green cheese. She wanted no part of families who live without bank accounts and whose cash box is a cracked teapot. At home there was the whole Eagon family with which to contend. Nowhere in Pat's life was there any privacy. She wanted more out of life than the daily grind of dishwater, unpaid bills, and counting pennies. From the moment she saw a picture of Ford Harrison, heir to millions, she knew he was the "moon" she wanted and was going to get.

HEROLD, J. C. *The Swiss Without Halos*. New York 27: Columbia University Press. 1948. 271 pp. \$3.75. The author, who has had the opportunity to know the Swiss as they really are, dusts off most of the familiar Swiss legends and lightens the dark corners of history with many little-known facts and much of his own erudite wit. The spiritual mission of the Swiss and their important contributions to European thought in general are given considerable space, as are several delightful digressions into the realms of the mysticism of mountaineering, Swiss painting, and other byways.

HORNUNG, J. L. *Radar Primer*. New York 18: McGraw-Hill Book Co. 1948. 224 pp. \$2.80. This book offers a simplified presentation of radar, with emphasis on its peacetime uses. It is written in simple, entertaining style, with technical vocabulary and scientific theory kept to the smallest amount consistent with the requirements of the subject. Necessary technical terms are carefully explained as they are introduced. This book explores all the important areas of radar, giving the student understanding of how radar works and how it is used. It also acquaints him with the essential features of television, loran, and sonar, and supplies an excellent foundation for more advanced theory and applications. Illustrations—diagrams and photographs—and a bibliography are included.

IBN-ZAHAR, ARI. *Jessica, My Daughter*. New York 16: Crown Publishers. 1948. 312 pp. \$3.00. This is a story of the golden days of Venice, when that fabulous city was in its glory as the center of the art and beauty of the world. It is the story that Shakespeare did not tell in his *Merchant of Venice*, of Shylock and Jessica and of Jessica's lovers.

JACENDORF, M. *New England Bean-Pot*. New York 17: Vanguard Press. 1948. 290 pp. \$2.50. This is the first volume in a series of regional folk tales for children by the author of *Tyll Eulenspiegel's Merry Pranks*. The author is not only one of the foremost American folk-lorists; he also has the rare gift of retelling with verve, gusto, and simplicity the tales he has gathered. In this book are stories of giants and witches, of great feats of strength and of imprudent strokes of humor; and of all the legendary heroes and heroines of New England.

KAPLAN, A. D. H. *Small Business: Its Place and Problems*. New York 18: McGraw-Hill Book Co. 1948. 295 pp. \$3.25. Now the spotlight of impartial research is thrown upon small business and its role in our economy, with particular emphasis given to present-day conditions and problems. Here are analyzed the causes of a high turnover rate for the small-scale enterprise—the problems the small business-man faces—and the private and public policies that can help strengthen small business, important not only to the health of our economy but also for its role in our democratic society. This study provides a background of figures and facts on every aspect of small business: number of firms and employees, volume of business, areas and distribution, life span and mortality rates, relative efficiency, profit comparisons, and many others. The effectiveness and opportunities of the small business in competition are examined, and popular proposals to aid small business are objectively appraised.

KENNY, NICK. *More Poems by Nick Kenny*. Garden City, New York: Halcyon House, 1948. 184 pp. \$1.50. Nick can draw chuckles, too. But whatever the subject of the poems that appear in Nick Kenny's column in the New York *Daily Mirror*, they have the sincerity and understanding that make people like them and remember them. Nick Kenny, through his poems alone, is a friend to thousands of people who turn to him and find comfort, thoughts they were thinking and could not express, a philosophical or humorous side to some of the problems of everyday life.

LING, S. G., and E. B. *The Art of Being Happy*. Philadelphia, Pa.: J. B. Lippincott Co. 1948. 309 pp. \$3.50. You can achieve the precious goal of personal happiness and inner peace—by mastering certain simple techniques in management of yourself and your thoughts and by following the practical, hard-won advice of wise men and women who have walked the road before you. This book is a reminder again that happiness comes from within and does not result from wealth or power. And the theme, running through the words of the writers represented, is that happiness can be achieved by working at it, much as one attains success in business or a profession by mastering certain techniques.

KOUES, HELEN. *The American Woman's Encyclopedia of Home Decorating*. Garden City, New York: Garden City Publishing Co. 1948. 996 pp. Is your problem small space? A big house? Re-decorating an old house? Planning a new one? How to get the best money can buy? Working decorating miracles on practically nothing? This new book is so basic, so all-inclusive, yet so full of suggestions and ideas as new as tomorrow, that to call it an encyclopedia is an under-statement. As a standard reference book it is as indispensable as a cookbook. Every room of the house is treated not only as a whole, but also item by item. A few of the items treated are: bedrooms, boys' and girls' rooms, living rooms, combination rooms, kitchens, dining rooms, dinettes, game rooms, bathrooms, porches, terraces, sun decks, closets, curtains, draperies, slip covers, table decoration, modernizing old rooms, antique furniture, refinishing furniture, choosing an old house, and planning a new house. There are more than 1,000 photographs, with 36 in color, as illustrations. It is thumb-indexed for ready reference.

KROEBER, ELSBETH, and WOLFF, W. H. *Adventures with Animals and Plants*. Boston 16: D. C. Heath and Co. 1948. 612 pp. \$3.20. This book presents to the

pupil facts that the biologists have learned by observations and experiments. Conclusions or principles are stated to summarize or explain the facts. Suggestions as exercises are given for class discussion and for experiments. Questions for review cover the problems studied. The book is divided into ten units of study. Each unit is divided into problems; and each problem has pictures, text, a summary, questions, exercises, and a list of activities for further study. Preceding the index is a list of reading references for each of the ten units.

LAGARD, GARALD. *Scarlet Cockerel*. New York 16: William Morrow and Co. 1946. 442 pp. \$3.50. From the moment the schooner *Whisper* leaves England and sweeps across the Atlantic with its contraband cargo of drugs and arms, this is a story vibrant with life—pulsing with color and emotion. Northern women and Southern men have been in love before, but when Fae Bishop and Lane Byrn meet aboard the *Whisper*, theirs is a different kind of love—one that can be twisted and turned, but never broken by the partisan ties of wars. Throughout the four years that follow, their story is one with the struggle of a nation to remain indivisible. The people around them are as ordinary and heroic, as believable as any group of contemporary Americans. Tough, unscrupulous sea captain Selmo fights from a horse when he no longer has his ship; blonde Betsy Toledo—a big woman, body and soul—hazards her life to help him smuggle needed medical supplies to the South.

LAMBEKT, JANET. *Miss Tippy*. New York 10: E. P. Dutton and Co. 1948. 192 pp. \$2.25. As always in the Parrish clan, many things happen at once: Tippy sends out invitations for a birthday dance on Governors Island; Colonel Parrish is ordered to Germany; and sudden tragedy stalks into the gay Parrish household. For a long time Tippy has been smarting under Trudy's, the beloved colored cook, failure to call her "Miss Tippy." Trudy is all-wise, all-knowing. When Tippy ceases to be a headstrong, teasing, little flitterfly, says Trudy, and takes on a bit of sorely lacking dignity, she will be called "Miss Tippy," but not until then.

LASS, A. H.; MCGILL, E. L.; and AXELROD, DONALD. *Plays From Radio*. Boston 7: Houghton Mifflin Co. 1948. 350 pp. \$1.72. All the studies of students' listening habits reveal that they spend more time at the radio than they do reading newspapers or books or magazines. Much of what they hear during these hours of undirected and misdirected listening is, of course, depressingly shoddy, sentimental, crassly vulgar, and banal. The unformed taste of adolescents attracts them to these programs as it does to similar types of reading matter such as the tabloids, the pulps, the sensational comic books, or true-confession magazines. The task of the teacher seems clear—to bring our students to a deeper and finer appreciation of the best in radio drama, to equip them with standards for evaluating what they hear, to teach them to prefer the real, the vital, the decent, and the good in radio drama. The authors, in selecting these 14 plays, have been guided by appeal to recognized and varied adolescent interests, readability, suitability for classroom discussion, craftsmanship. The book also contains a chapter on production of the radio play, a glossary of radio terms, and a bibliography for further reading.

LEHR, LEW; TINNEY, CAL; and BOWER, ROGER. *Stop Me If You've Heard This One*. Garden City, New York: Halcyon House. 1948. 246 pp. \$1.29. Roger

Bower, writer, producer, and veteran of *Can You Top This?*, *It Pays to Be Ignorant*, *Hobby Lobby* and other shows, now narrator of "straight man" on the *Stop Me If You've Heard This One Program*, at last gets a chance to tell a story right to the end without being stopped. Wit and hilarious satire run rampant. Cal Tenny, story-teller, lecturer, and columnist, now on three radio programs and one television program, is at his best here. His favorite stories and anecdotes, many about his native Oklahoma, are interspersed with his own whimsical, often hilarious bits of homespun philosophy.

LEYSON, B. W. *Fighting Crime*. New York 10: E. P. Dutton and Co. 1948. 193 pp. \$2.50. Action is the keynote of this book, which combines action and real cases with a detailed, accurate description of police work as it really is and of the often fascinating methods used in meeting the crime, crime prevention, and public safety problems of our largest city, New York. Though it is not a career book as such, it includes chapters on the Police Academy where rookie officers are trained, and on the various career opportunities in the police field.

MACDONALD, BETTY. *The Plague and I*. Philadelphia 5: J. B. Lippincott Co. 1948. 254 pp. \$2.75. The author relates her experience with the nurses and patients while she was going through the crisis of tuberculosis in a sanatorium. The author describes many humorous encounters with occupational therapy operations, with nurses, other patients, and those people "who sit on the bed and argue." In this book the author proves that it takes more than tuberculosis to stop her. The story carries right up to the perfect drama of that big day when she, well and healthy again, lands a job.

MADARIAGA, SALVADOR. *The Fall of the Spanish American Empire*. New York: Macmillan Co. 1948. 451 pp. \$5.00. This book completes de Madariaga's study begun in *The Rise of the Spanish American Empire*, which was published by the Macmillan Company in 1947. When the earlier work appeared, Bertram D. Wolfe, writing in the *New York Herald Tribune*, praised "the wealth of detail . . . the intense flashes of illumination provided by the rare combination of a characteristically Spanish passionate intellect with the outlook of a modern liberal and European mind." Like its predecessor, this book attempts to correct, while maintaining a thoroughly objective point of view, many deep-rooted mistaken beliefs concerning Spanish America. Stressing the cultural forces that shaped present-day Latin-American countries along with the discovery, conquest, and development of the South American continent, the author treats fairly the failures as well as the successes in the colonial and subsequently national governments, with proper attention paid its Indian and Negro inhabitants. Serious in intent, the author's cosmopolitan humor and sparkling style of writing make the result of his research and scholarship both pleasant and lively.

MALONEY, T. J., editor. *U. S. Camera Annual, 1949*. New York 20: U. S. Camera Pub. Corp., 420 Lexington Ave. 1948. 392 pp. \$6.50. This book contains hundreds of pictures telling the story of present-day trends in all types of photography, covering both this country and other countries of the world. Both fine photographic studies and great news pictures are included in this annual. Landscapes, seascapes, portraits, and mood and impressionistic photographs fill the Fine Picture (Vol I)

Section, as well as prints from leading photographic exhibits. Included for the first time since the war are color pictures as well. Several feature stories and factual press photographs in the News Section (Vol. II) present a pictorial reporting of important news events of the year—on-the-spot reporting by the leading men of the working press in the world today. Human interest, drama, laughs, politics, and scientific subjects are the core of the section along with a chronology of the news events. Two major news features are covered in Robert Capa's interesting trip behind the Iron Curtain in Russia, and Henri Cartier-Bresson's coverage of the last days and the funeral of India's Gandhi. Among the top-ranking photographers represented in this book are Beaton, Blumenfeld, McLaughlin, Adams, Weston, Miller, Model, Connell, Sarra, Mili, and Rawlings, as well as Steichen's in-and-out of focus show from the New York Museum of Modern Art.

MATHEWS, BASIL. *Booker T. Washington*. Cambridge 38, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1948. 368 pp. \$4.75. This first full-length biography covers the whole of Booker T. Washington's life on the basis of first-hand research and interview. It is the story of his rise and ambitions, his heroic and successful fight against poverty, his growing conviction of the place of the Negro in civilization, and his patience and balance in a world which failed to understand the Negro. It is also in large part the story of the progress of the Negro race from slave days through emancipation to its coming of educational age. The author gives the first full account and balanced appraisal of the still active debate aroused by critics who advocate drastic direct action as against Booker T. Washington's practice of friendly nation-wide interracial interpretation and education. The story of his inventive initiative in helping Presidents Roosevelt and Taft to deal with a crisis in Liberia, and of his tour among peasants across Europe throws fresh dramatic light on his world-wide influence.

MAYORGA, MARGARET, editor. *Twenty Short Plays on a Royalty Holiday*. (1947-1950). New York 19: Samuel French, 25 West 45th St. 1948. 373 pp. \$3.50. This anthology of one-act plays that may be produced without royalty during the three years above specified meets a developing dramatic need—the need for material that can be used informally for group expression without the necessity of charging admission for royalty privileges. The book contains comedies and dramas that are suitable for junior and senior high schools, serious studies of life that will interest colleges, and sophisticated plays that will inspire Little Theaters. As a whole, the collection is for everyone interested in American one-act plays—students, teachers, directors, study groups, armchair actors, and fireside producers, as well as all who give plays “just for fun.” All of the plays in this volume are also published separately at forty cents per copy.

MCCORD, DAVID. *About Boston*. Garden City, New York: Doubleday and Co. 1948. 192 pp. \$2.50. The author has written a series of essays about Boston. To him, Boston is more than buildings, monuments, streets, and history; he has found it alive with character and personality. He knows its ways and byways equally well. He is as conscious of its flaws and as tolerant of its foibles as he is aware of its merits.

METCALFE, J. J. *Poem Portraits*. Garden City, New York: Halcyon House. 1948.

268 pp. \$1.79. There are in literature probably millions of verses about small, everyday events and phases of home life, love, friendship, and human interest. But the author combines good humor, wisdom, and understanding into a style all his own, into little word pictures you will enjoy reading and remembering. This first book of "Portraits" contains 750 of the poems that bring daily comfort and happiness to readers of nearly 100 newspapers all over the United States.

MEYER, J. S. *Fun-To-Do*. New York 10: E. P. Dutton and Co. 1948. 219 pp. \$2.49.

The author divides this new omnibus of fun into three parts: "This 'N That" shows you how to entertain and bewilder your friends and acquaintances. "Quizzes That Are Different" are quizzes that test your imagination, your knowledge, your powers of observation, your ability to unravel tricky questions, your vocabulary. "Word Puzzles" have anagrams, fill-in-puzzles, triple-word puzzles, a new type of double acrostic, word designs. *Fun-To-Do* means just that—and is guaranteed to provide countless hours of entertainment and stimulating mental exercise for many people.

MITCHISON, NAOMI. *Blood of the Martyrs*. New York 18: Whittlesey House. 1948.

510 pp. \$3.50. In this novel, one the greatest stories of all time is brought to new and vivid life. The rich pageantry of Imperial Rome in the dissolute times of Nero—a fantastic city of great luxury and greater poverty, debauchery, and decadence—serves as the dramatic backdrop for its deeply moving story of a small group of Christian slaves who daily defied death for their faith. This is the story of Beric, proud captive son of a British king, who has been brought up in the household of a wealthy Roman. Beric, infatuated with Flavia, his master's spoiled beautiful daughter, learns how little it means to be a king's son if you aren't a Roman citizen. In a mood of sullen self-questioning, he meets Lalage, lovely dancer in Nero's court, and learns from her and other slaves of the strange new gospel of Christ. It was among these slaves, beaten, sold at the market, treated as sub-animals, who had nothing to lose and all heaven to gain, that the spirit of Christianity first took fire. Here is the court of Nero himself, a greatly gifted but self-deluded leader. There still remains a handful of an earlier generation of Romans, aristocrats living by a dead philosophy. But opposing them are the new-rich, catapulted into power, greedy, having neither morals nor scruples. Here, too, are St. Paul and St. Luke, the good physician. Here, magnificently told by one of Britain's most distinguished living novelists, is the story of how Rome burned and how the Christians were accused of setting it afire. Here are the monster spectacles in the Colosseum, in which Christians were sacrificed to hungry lions or burned as living torches to delight a howling mob.

MORGAN, MURRAY. *Dixie Raider*. New York 10: E. P. Dutton and Co. 1948. 336

pp. \$4.00. The unparalleled career of the Confederate States raider *Shenandoah* is one of the strangest and most dramatic in the annals of naval warfare. In this book, the author tells the whole saga. The *Shenandoah* fought the War Between the States singlehanded for months after General Lee—unknown to the raider cruising in distant seas—had surrendered at Appomattox Courthouse. During one stage of her voyage, this gallant Southern cruiser wrought more destruction in a shorter period than any other wood-hulled warship in history. When she reap-

peared out of the blue, still flying the Stars and Bars long after the defeat of the Southern cause, the international repercussions shook the peaceful relations between the United States and Great Britain.

NEWCOMB, ELLSWORTH. *Window on the Sea*. New York 10: E. P. Dutton and Co. 1948. 192 pp. \$2.50. When Joan Andrews flew from Annapolis to San Diego with her distinguished father, Captain Andrews of the U. S. Navy, she felt she had left much of the world behind her. Bill Asher, an attractive midshipman, stayed on in Annapolis. Yet, on the first morning after her arrival at the great Naval Base she met Dan Whitney—Dan who was a young architect and nephew of the Admiral. From that moment on, things happened at lightning speed.

NOLAN, J. S., compiler. *The Way, the Truth, the Life*. Boston 8: Beacon Press. 1948. 64 pp. \$1.00. Mr. Nolan has made a careful selection of words from the New Testament and classified them under various categories. The book is attractively done by Edward A. Karr, calligrapher, so that his work together with Mr. Nolan's selections make a dignified and appealing book.

ODGEN, H. A. *Young People's Book of Famous Regiments*. New York 16: Robert M. McBride and Co. 1948. 308 pp. \$2.75. These are the thrilling stories of the world's famous fighting corps from the day of Oliver Cromwell's invincible *Ironsides*, to the heroic U. S. 82nd Airborne Division in our own time. Passing in gallant array are more than one hundred renowned fighting units.

de ONIS, HARRIET. *The Golden Land*. New York 22: Alfred A. Knopf. 1948. 403 pp. \$4.00. This book is made up of fifty-four selections and represents forty-four writers. It is divided into sections, each with a critical, historical, and explanatory introduction by Harriet de Onis, who has likewise supplied short, critical, and biographical sketches of all the writers included. At once readable and highly informative, it presents a condensed and thought-provoking portrait of the minds and attitude that have built the Latin-American republics of our time.

OWEN, FRANK, editor. *Teen-Age Baseball Stories*. New York 10: Lantern Press. 1948. 255 pp. \$2.50. Here is a collection of 16 interesting and exciting baseball stories selected from good sports writers. The stories are ones that will appeal to teen-age pupils. Pen-and-ink drawings illustrate each story. Indirectly, interwoven in the stories are incentives for the development of character-building qualities.

OWEN, FRANK, editor. *Teen-Age Football Stories*. New York 10: Lantern Press. 1948. 252 pp. \$2.50. In this volume appear the selected works of many writers high in sports writing. Each story is complete in itself, exciting and stimulating. In addition to all that good stories possess, this collection stresses alertness, fair play, courage, and understanding that are inspired in good, clean competition. The stories are accurate as to football rules as well as to life in high school.

Preliminary Draft of a World Constitution. The Committee to Frame a World Constitution. Chicago 37: The Committee, 975 East Sixtieth St. 1948. 104 pp. \$2.00. In the autumn of 1945, members of the faculty of the University of Chicago proposed an Institute of World Government to parallel the Institute of Nuclear Physics already established. "The intellectual courage that split the atom should be called

to unite the world." This proposal resulted in the Committee to Frame a World Constitution. Included were scholars coming from one Canadian and several American universities and representing five different national backgrounds. For over two years this group of legal scholars, social scientists, and political philosophers conferred, proposed, criticized, and revised. Their efforts brought forth this document, offered not as *the* Constitution which a united world will adopt but rather as the first concrete outline of what a World Republic *might* look like. They hope that such a clear and detailed picture may remove much of the strangeness and "utopianism" from a development which this generation seems to agree is inevitable. Whatever the decision of history, this Constitution provides a track for further study and discussion of the problem of world government, which is, basically and ultimately, the problem of the atomic age.

PRETORIUS, MAJ. P. J. *Jungle Man*. New York 10: E. P. Dutton and Co. 1948. 256 pp. \$3.75. Major Pretorius was born in Transvaal, South Africa, but he was one of those boys to whom search for adventure was as vital as is security to most people. He made up his mind that he would make a living by hunting for elephant tusks. With two or three faithful natives and a few dependable guns, he went into the African jungle and stayed there without coming out for two or three years at a time. He was a natural hunter. He was fascinated by the jungle animal world: he was calm and his eyesight was extraordinary. Frequently he detected animals on the horizon with his naked eye before his companions could find them with binoculars. Elephants and their habits were his special interest; but alligators, water buffaloes, the big cats, hippopotami, and gorillas also fascinated him. This book is packed with action and excitement. Certainly no ordinary man could have gone through what Major Pretorius did and stayed alive and sane. No book like this could ever be written again, because even now the circumstances which produced a man like Pretorius are changed. It is the record of an astonishing career. This book has a timelessness that will make it as good reading and as valuable fifty years from now as it is today.

ROBOTTI, F. D. *Chronicles of Old Salem: A History in Miniature*. Salem, Mass.: Mrs. A. E. MacSwiggan, 95 Loring Ave. 1948. \$2.50 cloth bound; \$1.65, paper covers, postpaid. This book begins at 1000 A.D. with Leif Ericson's almost legendary visit to America. It covers early economic, political, and religious movements convulsing Europe and affecting American colonization. From 1626, when Roger Conant founded Naumkeag (Salem), the narrative deals with the Puritan stronghold as a scene of mass witchcraft, Quaker whippings, privateering, whaling. Revolutionary stamping ground, New England politics marking the birth and growth of American political parties, Nathaniel Hawthorne and diverse happenings in the fabulous old seaport of exotic wealth and American culture which have made it a favorite for novels since Nathaniel Hawthorne's day. The book contains over 1200 basic facts. Illustrated and indexed.

SAMSON, DON. *Teen-Age Aviation Stories*. New York 10: Lantern Press. 1948. 252 pp. \$2.50. The author is the editor of *Open Road* and knows what teen-agers want. Boys and girls will receive this volume with enthusiasm. An up-to-the-minute book planned to hold the attention of the reader while inculcating the prime motivation of the Teen-Age Library—character building. Illustrated.

SANDBURG, CARL. *Remembrance Rock*. New York 17: Harcourt, Brace, and Co. 1948. 1067 pp. \$5.00. This is a novel written by a seasoned writer who has lived a full span of years. It is about human beings who lived, laughed, quarrelled, dreamed, hated, and loved, with reality and passion through 350 years of American history. Readers will find it dramatic, an epic that weaves the mystery of the American dream with the toil and struggles that have kept alive and advanced that dream.

SCHOFIELD, W. G. *The Deer Cry*. New York 3: Longmans, Green, and Co. 1948. 317 pp. \$3.00. This book is a fictional treatment of the life of Ireland's great Saint Patrick, weaving the legends and accounts of him into an exciting novel. It pictures the rich beauty of sixth-century Irish civilization, the rising cloud of the Dark Ages, the swift spread of Christian influence, the human and frequently impetuous side of Patrick. We first meet him on the ship of King Niall, a young slave being carried to Ireland by his captors, away from the smoking ruins of his birthplace in Gaul. Another slave is the maiden Concessa whose destiny and that of Kevin, the descendant of Irish kings, are to be linked with Patrick's over many years. We meet Patrick's brutal masters; see him sent as a herder of flocks to the wild heights of Slemish where in loneliness and prayer his love of Ireland grows and he conceives his great mission to Christianize the land of his exile. He learns the language, the history, the sagas of Ireland. We follow the steps of his escape back to Gaul, of his years of preparation in the monasteries of Mar-moutier and Lerins, where he fires other noble men with his ardor and carefully trains them to accompany him. His return to Ireland, his encounters with the Druids who tried to destroy him, his dramatic appearance at the court at Tara, his wonder-working, his conversion—all follow the lines of the historic account. Into it is woven the romance of Kevin and Concessa, glimpses of the character and customs of the men of ancient Eirinn, the zeal and charity of Patrick which were met by an answering nobility and are imprinted indelibly in the Irish heart.

SCHOONOVER, LAWRENCE. *The Burnished Blade*. New York 11: Macmillan Co. 1948. 371 pp. \$3.00. The flaming martyrdom of Joan of Arc opens this historical romance in France at the dawn of the Renaissance. Among the onlookers at that terrible spectacle was Pierre, a frightened boy whom Hugh, the armourer, had rescued that morning on the road outside Rome. Under Hugh's tutelage, Pierre learns the closely guarded secrets of the armourer's trade. But he is destined not to use them, for his adventures begin while he is still young. Involved in a student brawl, he is unjustly charged with murder and must leave Rouen. Soon he is apprenticed to the richest merchant in France. Pierre's employer, learning that jewels and opium are being smuggled into France, sends the young man to Trebizond to discover and unmask the smugglers. Leaving behind the beautiful Claire de la Tour-Claremont, Pierre exchanges the glamour of feudal France for the remote, forbidding Trapezuntian empire on the border of the Black Sea in Asia Minor. Here in fiction is a picture of the barbaric splendor of Trebizond—sophisticated and polished, but seething with intrigue and amorality.

SCHORR, GENE, editor. *Giant Book of Sports*. Garden City, New York: Garden City Publishing Co. 1948. 187 pp. \$2.50. The book presents the essential facts about

six major sports—baseball, football, basketball, boxing, tennis, and bowling. It contains the Hall of Fame of these six sports as well as the history, records, outstanding achievements, and the all-important rules of each. It includes instructions in playing each sport and each position based on the methods and experiences of the greatest stars of all time. More than 500 action drawings by Samuel Nisenson demonstrate the way to play as the champions do.

COTT, VIRGIL. *The Hickory Stick*. New York 16: Swallow and Morrow. 1948. 750 pp. \$3.95. This is the story of Doug Harris, a struggling school teacher in a very small town. He learned of certain local requirements that teachers in this locality had to follow. But at the same time, he learned of big, bluff Jord Burlick, of the Rev. Arthur Hall, and of Supt. George Gilchrist, men who didn't know the meaning of the word "sell out." It was through these men that Doug remembered his father's saying: "Don't ever sell out, son."

SEEGER, R. C. *American Folk Songs for Children*. Garden City, New York: Doubleday and Co. 1948. 190 pp. \$4.00. Here is a group of songs with simple piano arrangements that has been selected upon the basis of appeal to small children. The songs are folk songs current in various parts of North America. The state in which each song was collected is indicated above its notation. At the beginning of the book the author tells how the book "came about"; why our children should know and enjoy American folk music; how to sing the songs; how to improvise words; how to use the songs at home; how to use tone-play, finger play, and repetition; what is good accompanying; and the value of humor and appreciation of nonsense. The songs may be classified as coming and going songs; outdoor songs; action songs; animal, bird, and insect songs; color, clothing, food, and home songs; work, hammer, train, and boat songs; singing game songs; and Christmas songs.

SHAY, FRANK. *American Sea Songs and Chantreys*. New York: W. W. Norton and Co. 1948. 217 pp. \$5.00. This book is a collection of rollicking sea songs and chantreys. It contains the words and music of 76 sea chantreys and songs that were sung by sailors during the days of iron men and wooden ships and are still sung by present-day ship crews. The musical arrangements are done by Christopher Thomas. Color wood blocks by Edward A. Wilson appropriately illustrate the songs. The book includes such favorite songs as: "Away to Rio," "Bell-Bottom Trousers," "Paddy Works on the Railroad," "Blow, Ye Winds," "Rollicking Bill the Sailor," and "Christofa Columbo."

SHULTZ, G. D. *Letters to Jane*. Philadelphia, Pa.: J. B. Lippincott Co. 1948. 224 pp. \$2.75. Here, with the informal intimacy of a personal letter, is frank, realistic sex counsel from a mother to her daughter. It brings into the open those perplexing and distributing aspects of sex encountered for the first time by young people—aspects too often discussed in whispers, when discussed at all. The author side-steps no issues in this important book for parents, sons, and daughters.

SIMON, C. M. *The Royal Road*. New York 10: E. P. Dutton and Co. 1948. 152 pp. \$2.50. Four expeditions were sent out by the King of Spain to claim the land of California. Aboard the little ship *San Antonio*, as it dropped anchor off the southern coast one spring day in 1769, there was real consternation. What had become

of their flagship, the *San Carlos*? Its crew should have been here to welcome the *San Antonio*, yet there was no sign of life along the vast expanse of beach as the lad Pedro jumped ashore. The story is largely his, for soon he meets an Indian lad about his own age and through the eyes of these two boys the reader watches the drama of the Royal Road unfold, a road which led to Monterey and back again and ended in the establishment of missions both inland and along the coast of California.

SINGMASTER, ELSIE. *I Heard of a River*. Philadelphia, Pa.: John C. Winston Co. 1948. 219 pp. \$2.50. Here is a part of America's heritage—the story of the German-Swiss Mennonites who settled in what is now Lancaster County, Pennsylvania. At William Penn's invitation to establish themselves near Philadelphia, these people came to America, bringing with them their superb knowledge of agriculture and a grooved, or rifled gun. They came to the New World because all through their oppression in their homeland they had heard of a beautiful river in America, which we know as the Susquehanna, and whose verdant banks were the source of legend. They came to build a new life in this strange, unspoiled Paradise. This is a story of Hannes, a German-Lutheran boy who joined a band of Swiss Mennonites fleeing from Europe's desperate terror and poverty of the 17th century. It is a story of the perils of Hannes' journey and the improvement of his rifle brought from his fatherland.

SPAETH, SIGMUND. *A History of Popular Music in America*. New York: Random House. 1948. 745 pp. \$5.00. From Colonial days to the swiftly advancing present, music has contributed to our understanding of the nation's life, to our appreciation of the conglomerate mass meant by the word "American," to the need for humor and entertainment that go hand and hand with the seriousness of our daily march toward achievement. Ours is truly a popular music, more noted for its abundance of gay and temporal offerings than for its rare excursions into the classic tradition. This book is the history of American popular music. Besides emphasizing items of historical importance, the book delves into the obscure backgrounds of many familiar melodies whose creators are virtually unknown to the general public. The order is chronological, and biographical summaries are inserted at convenient points. Also included, is an extensive listing of popular music as well as an index of songs and instrumental numbers arranged by titles and by composers.

STEVENSON, BURTON. *The Home Book of Proverbs, Maxims, and Familiar Phrases*. New York: Macmillan Co. 1948. 2365 pp. \$20.00. This book together with the author's "Home Book of Verse" (published in 1912, constantly in reprint), "The Home Book of Modern Verse," "The Home Book of Quotations," and "The Home Book of Shakespeare Quotations" is the result of some ten years of research and has drawn upon the author's long familiarity with foreign languages, historical, and literary sources. "It traces," says the author, "familiar phrases from the Pharaohs and Solomon to Ogden Nash. For example, the wartime expression 'going west' was first used by the Egyptians, probably because their cemetery was on the west side of the Nile." When he went to work on this book, he reread the Greek and Latin classics, many French well-knowns, and referred to such basics as Shakespeare and the Bible, the Koran and the Talmud, Rabelais, Montaigne,

"Don Quixote," the "Colloquia" of Erasmus, O. Henry, and scores of others. "You can do quite a lot in five years if you keep at it every day," adds the untiring, over-seventy Mr. Stevenson. "There are a lot of people who are capable of doing this sort of thing, but perhaps not so many willing to undergo the drudgery which the job involves. But I like it!" The attempt is made in this book to trace back to their sources the proverbs, maxims, and familiar phrases in ordinary English and American use; to show their development from the first crude expression of the idea to its streamlined modern form, and to note the variations and perversions which, year after year, have been built around the central theme. In order to make the book complete, many so-called "familiar quotations" have been added, either because they contain a well-known phrase, or because they relate to the development of some proverbial expression. In a few instances, the trail leads back nearly six thousand years to the early Egyptian scribes, but for the most part it goes no farther than the Homeric and Hesiodic writings of about 800 B. C., and the Hebrew wisdom literature of perhaps a century later.

The Greek selections are the result of a careful reading of the great epics, tragedies, biographies, and histories, from Homer to Plutarch, as well as of many minor works. The same is true of the Latin, except that here the compiler had the assistance of two collections which he has used entire, the so-called *Dicta Catonis*, which may or may not stem back to Cato Major, and the *Sententiae* of Publilius Syrus, dating from about 43 B. C. He has also made extensive use of that greatest and most scholarly of all such compilations, the *Adagia* of Erasmus, which dates from 1500. Quotations from Greek, Latin, Italian, Spanish, French, and Dutch are given in the original, as well as in translation; but this was not possible for Hebrew, Arabic, Chinese, and other Semitic or Asiatic languages, though for some of the Chinese proverbs the transliterations of Justus Doolittle and of William Scarborough have been used. For the Greek and Latin texts, the *Loeb Classical Library* has been followed, in so far as it was available.

The English quotations have been taken from literary sources wherever possible, with their exact location indicated, but in very many instances their first appearance in print was in one of the collections of the early paroemiographers, as they liked to call themselves.

STONE, EUGENIA. *Robin Hood's Arrow*. New York: Wilcox and Follett Co. 1948. 164 pp. Here is a new Robin Hood story that presents the fascination of the old tales of the merry outlaws of Sherwood Forest. A new hero is added, young Dan o' the Mill, whose big brother, Midge, wears the Lincoln green of Robin Hood's band. Following a series of exciting episodes in which Robin goes his merry way, outwitting the Sheriff of Nottingham and helping the poor, the story ends with Danny doing a great service for Robin and receiving a reward. The type used and the illustrations add attractiveness and appeal to the story.

THOMAS, DAVID, editor. *Teen-Age Sea Stories*. New York 10: Lantern Press. 1948. 252 pp. \$2.50. Probably everybody has at one time or other wanted to "go down to the sea in ships." No subject has greater fascination for the young in heart than the sea with its depth of mystery and scope of adventure. Carefully selected for reading value and stimulating interest, here is a volume of sea stories that will be of real interest to boys and girls. Illustrated.

THOMAS, HENRY, and D. L. *Life Stories of the Great Inventors*. Garden City, New York: Halcyon House. 1948. 309 pp. \$1.98. Here is a book that combines fascinating biographies of famous personalities and the absorbing story of the great inventions that have made our civilization and our America what they are today. In the life stories of the twenty outstanding inventors presented in this volume are all the elements that make for exciting and profitable reading—inspiration, ambition, struggle, suffering, romance, triumph, and success!

VANCE, MARGUERITE. *Patsy Jefferson of Monticello*. New York: E. P. Dutton and Co. 1948. 154 pp. \$2.50. The story opens when Patsy, daughter of Thomas Jefferson, is eleven, but reverts to her babyhood and then goes on through the colorful years that brought her at last to Washington to hear her father's inaugural address. The book is an historical biography full of color and action. It shows that Patsy's devotion to her father superseded all other interests.

WAGENKNECHT, EDWARD, editor. *A Fireside Book of Yuletide Tales*. Indianapolis 7, Ind.: Bobbs-Merrill Co. 1948. 573 pp. \$4.00. Popular demand created this book. The great success of *The Fireside Book of Christmas Stories* made it clear that one Christmas anthology edited by Dr. Edward Wagenknecht would not be enough. While expressing their delight with the first collection, readers urged another which might include this favorite story or that. This book is presented to the millions who loved its predecessor too well to be content with it alone and to all others who love Christmas and know that good Christmas stories are indispensable to proper enjoyment of the holiday. To the miracle of Bethlehem such writers as Elizabeth Goudge, Robert Nathan, and Heywood Broun pay moving tribute. Each story in a fine opening section partakes a little differently from the others of the inexhaustible radiance. All are sincere and moving. Legends have a time-honored place around the yule log. Coningsby Dawson writes of what happens at Christmas to the children lured from Hamelin Town by the Pied Piper. Selma Lagerlöf brings an Old World charm with her story. Vincent Starrett contributes laughter and pathos with a new look at Lewis Carroll's Alice. These and many other interesting stories are included in this volume.

WATSON, L. E. *The Standard Book of Etiquette*. Garden City, New York: Garden City Publishing Co. 1948. 567 pp. \$2.95. This new work is not merely a revision of an older work; it is a completely new, completely modern, and thoroughly comprehensive treatment of the whole field of etiquette. Every aspect of the subject—from the basic courtesies of everyday living to the precise formalities of a ceremonial function, from the writing of a simple "bread-and-butter" note to the preparation of formal invitations—is treated in detail with scores of specific, helpful examples.

WOUK, HERMAN. *The City Boy*. New York 20: Simon and Schuster. 1948. 306 pp. \$2.95. This is a novel portraying the adventures of Herbie, eleven, and his cousin, Cliff, residents of the Bronx. It is the story of Herbie's joys and sorrows. In the final adventure, Herbie triumphs over most of his obstacles. We learn in the last pages of the book how successful he was in regaining the favor of ten-year-old Lucille, the goal of all his desperate activity.

Pamphlets for Pupil and Teacher Use

- BLAKESLEE, A. L. *Blood's Magic for All*. New York 16: Public Affairs Committee, Inc. 1948. 32 pp. 20c. The miracles of blood research with a discussion of the Rh factor in marriage.
- BROOKS, L. W. *Guides for Oral and Written Communication in Kansas Secondary Schools*. Topeka, Kansas: W. W. Wright, State Dept. of Educ. 1948. 117 pp. The point of view developed by The Language Arts Workshop organized by the Fort Hays Kansas State College at the suggestion of the State Department of Public Instruction is that of emphasizing situations that will bring out natural opportunities for speaking and writing experiences for frequent and full use of English.
- BROWN, WILLIS C. *A Future for Aviation Education*. (School Life reprint, May 1948). Washington, D. C.: U. S. Office of Education. A quick survey of progress in commercial and technical aviation and its relation to the secondary-school programs. Diagrams. References.
- BROWN, WILLIS C. *Aviation Periodicals (Secondary Education, Apr. 1948)*. Washington, D. C.: U. S. Office of Education. Mimeo. An alphabetical list of aviation periodicals with sources and subscription prices for teachers and pupils who wish to keep abreast of new developments and interesting reading in aviation. Of interest to librarians also.
- BROWN, WILLIS C. *Bibliography of Articles Concerning Conversion of War Surplus Equipment for Civilian and School Use (Secondary Education, Sept. 28, 1948)*. Washington, D. C.: U. S. Office of Education. Mimeo. Classified bibliography listing publications dealing primarily with typical surplus war material available from the Air Force.
- Capital Formation Under Free Enterprise*. New York 20: National Assn. of Manufacturers. 1948. 88 pp. An analysis of some of the problems facing industry, with an explanation of the process of the formation of capital for increased production and economic survival in a system of free enterprise.
- CHANEY, RALPH W. *Redwoods of the Past*. Berkeley 4, Calif.: Save-the-Redwoods League, 250 Admin. Bldg., Univ. of Calif. 1948. 7 pp. 10c. Annual membership \$2.00. World distribution and classification of redwoods.
- Child Labor After Ten Years of Federal Regulation*. New York 16: National Child Labor Committee, 419 Fourth Ave. 1948. 22 pp. Annual Report for 1948. Reviews operation of Federal law, facts and figures on trends in child labor, state legislative action, and current program of the Committee.
- Construction Methods*. Urbana, Ill.: Small Homes Council, Mumford House, Univ. of Ill. 12 pp. 10c. A study of saving through engineered construction.
- Counseling Is a School Service*. Philadelphia: Board of Educ. Sept. 1947. 38 pp. Teachers continue to perform some of the most valuable functions of counseling. Their responsibility should be preserved rather than removed by assigning counseling to a specialist. The thesis of this publication is that counselors are stand-bys to support and aid the teacher with individuals needing special understanding and help.
- CRAWFORD, WILL C. *Annual Report of the San Diego City Schools (1947-1948)*. 1948. San Diego 1, Calif.: Supt. of Schools, 825 Union St. 34 pp. A pictorial over-

view of the entire San Diego school system afforded by a glimpse into what generally occurs during a day at school.

CROMWELL, R. F., and PARMENTER, M. D. *Growing Up*. Buffalo 1, N. Y.: Guidance Publications, Box 89, Niagara Square Station. 1948. 64 pp. 50c. Planned particularly for group work in junior high school. A text-work book—touching the everyday behavior of students.

Directory of Members. Ann Arbor, Mich.: American Educational Theatre Association, Speech Dept., Univ. of Mich. 1948. 66 pp. \$1.00. In addition to the directory classified both geographically and alphabetically, it contains pages of information about membership dues, available publications, projected plans, officers, committees.

HALL, H. P., and VOSS, C. H. *American Interests in the Middle East*. New York 16: Foreign Policy Assn. 1948. 64 pp. 35c. Points out the need for co-ordinated foreign policy in the Middle East, both in official and unofficial activities in philanthropy, culture, oil exploitation, the Palestine problem, and strategy.

Handbook for the Audio-Visual Program. Bloomington, Ind.: Audio-Visual Center. 1948. 41 pp. \$1.00. A guide to the administration of the expanding audio-visual program of the Indiana schools. Problems, criteria, and suggestions for effective use of audio-visual materials for instruction.

Improvement in Secondary Education Through Group Studies (Vol. 4—Citizenship—Curriculum). Upper Darby, Pa.: J. E. Nancarrow, Pennsylvania Branch of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, Upper Darby Senior High School. 1948. 74 pp. \$1.00. A report of the curriculum study group activities and workshop conferences concerned with developing a more valid secondary-school curriculum. Considers life adjustment, controversial issues, community co-operation, citizenship, and other topics of current interest in curriculum revision.

Indiana and Midwest School Building Planning Conference: Proceedings. (Bulletin of the School of Education, Vol. XXIV, No. 5, Sept. 1948.) Bloomington, Ind.: Univ. Bookstore. 1948. 72 pp. \$1.00. Proceedings of conference on theme of "The Impact of the Emerging School Program Upon School Building Planning."

In-Service Courses. Philadelphia 3: Curriculum Office, Room 208, Public Schools Admin. Bldg., Parkway at 21st St. 1948. 60 pp. A description and schedule of the open, decentralized courses offered to teachers of the city schools. List encompasses sixty courses ranging from remedial reading and testing techniques to square dancing and knitting. Added list of courses for teachers available at Pennsylvania University, Temple University, and Drexel Institute. Contains a course on "Operation Atomic Vision" with one hour of in-service teacher credit.

JENNINGS, H. H. *Sociometry in Group Relations*. Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education, 744 Jackson Pl. 1948. 86 pp. \$1.25. Presents adaptations of sociometric devices to diagnosing interpersonal relationships in school groups, anecdotal cases studied, methodical steps developed in dealing with the dynamics and therapy of inter-group education.

JOHNSON, E. S. *Teen-Agers at Work* (Reprinted from *The Child*, Oct. 1948.) Wash. 25, D.C.: Child Labor Branch, Wage and Hour and Public Contacts Divisions,

U. S. Dept. of Labor. Free. Graphic analysis of the national picture of children at work, showing the tragic waste of human resources and the basic need for diversified educational facilities, aid, guidance, and legal protection.

JOHNSON, E. S., and LEGG, C. E. *Why Young People Leave School* (Reprint from THE BULLETIN of the NASSP, Nov. 1948). Wash. 25. D. C.: Child Labor Branch, Wage and Hour and Public Contracts Divisions, U. S. Dept. of Labor. 24 pp. A study of youth employment problems in a typical city, which is suggestive of needs in many communities.

KIRK, S. A., and ERDMAN, R. L. *Education of Mentally Handicapped Children*. Urbana, Ill.: Bureau of Research and Service, College of Education, Univ. of Ill. 1948. 47 pp. A selected, annotated bibliography of books, pamphlets, and articles from medical, psychological, sociological, and educational journals, which have direct application to educational procedures.

LANDIS, KENESAW M. *Segregation in Washington*. Chicago 15: National Committee on Segregation in the Nation's Capital, 4901 Ellis Ave. 1948. 91 pp. A condensed summary of the findings of the Committee which investigated the conditions and causes of segregation in Washington, D. C.

MILLER, L. L., and SEEMAN, A. Z. *Guidebook for Prospective Teachers*. Columbus, Ohio: College of Education, Ohio State Univ. 1948. 205 pp. \$1.00. Orientation book written for freshman students planning a career in education at Ohio State University.

National Music Camp. Ann Arbor, Mich.: Joseph E. Maddy, Univ. of Mich. 1948. 128 pp. Catalog of the 21st season's programs, faculty, staff, divisions, and services for the summer of 1948 at Interlochen. Also folder announcing the 22nd season, June 26 to Aug. 22, 1949.

National Projects in Educational Measurement. Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education, 744 Jackson Pl., N. W. 1947. 84 pp. The papers presented at the 1946 Invitational Conference on Testing Problems.

NELSON, LOWRY. *Can Farmers Afford to Live Better?* Wash. D. C.: National Planning Assn., 800 21st St., N. W. 1948. 32 pp. 50c. Farmers are urged to invest their profits in better living for their families rather than in land at inflated values. Related readings listed.

Periodicals for Small and Medium-Sized Libraries. Chicago: American Library Assn. 1948. 106 pp. \$1.75. A comprehensive compilation of periodicals for libraries having less than 20,000 or from 20,000 to 50,000 volumes, usually found in communities of 10,000 or less and 10,000 to 30,000 population. Alphabetically arranged listing annotated. Includes classified trade union, technical, religious, regional, and adult publications suitable for young people. Suggestions for selection, use, binding, and subscribing of periodicals and periodical indices.

A Picture of Britain. New York 20: British Information Services, 30 Rockefeller Plaza. 1948. 16 pp. A pictorial tour of the British Isles.

Picture Taking. Rochester 4, N.Y.: Sales Service Division, Eastman Kodak Co. Available at local dealers. 1948. 49 pp. 25c. An informative illustrated book on taking pictures indoors, in nontechnical language. Checklist of errors and how to avoid them included in this book punched for insertion in the Kodak Photographic Notebook.

- Plantation Plus* (New Dominion Series). Charlottesville, Va.: University Extension Division. 1948. 8 pp. Timber conservation viewed as a dollar-and-cents proposition.
- Postgraduate Education* (Pamphlet No. 106). Wash., D. C.: Supt. of Doc. 1948. 11 pp. 10c. An analysis of the background, problems, program, procedures, and enrollees of postgraduate education in high schools during 1947-1948. Data prior to and since entrance of veterans.
- Postwar Reconstruction in Western Germany* (*The Annals*, Nov. 1948). Philadelphia 4: The American Academy of Political and Social Science, 3817 Spruce St. 250 pp. \$2.00. An issue on political, economic, social, religious, and cultural problems in western Germany. Written in the defeated country itself and edited by Professor Adolf Schonke, eminent jurist and professor of law at the University of Freiburg i. Br., Germany.
- The Princeton Film Center. *Catalogue No. 11*. Princeton, N. J.: The Center. 1948. 75 pp. A comprehensive classified and annotated list of educational 16-mm. sound films on a wide variety of subjects, e.g., travel, sports, etiquette, sciences, agriculture, industry, music, law enforcement, transportation, safety, World War II.
- A Project in Civic Education*. Cambridge 38, Mass.: Educational Research Corporation. Civic Education Project, 40 Quincy St. 1948. 12 pp. A brochure setting forth the purpose and plans of the Project—to collect, examine, and arrange materials for developing civic intelligence and responsibility; to fashion a program for schools to help in preparing youth for citizenship in a democracy; and to make an essential contribution toward an effective national program of civic education.
- Promoting Growth in Reading*. Tulsa, Okla.: Tulsa Public Schools, Board of Educ. 1948. 190 pp. A step in curriculum study and revision toward recognizing the necessity for every teacher to be a teacher of reading to surmount the barrier of neglected reading skills which handicap students in every subject. Constructive exploration, critical appraisal, and suggested techniques for improving reading on the secondary level.
- Publications of American Educational Theatre Assn., Speech Dept., Univ. of Mich., Ann Arbor, Mich.
- A.E.T.A. Reports (1947) and Director of American Colleges and Universities Offering Degrees in Theatre*. 43 pp. \$1.00.
- National Directory of Drama Festivals and Contests Held in the U. S. During 1946-1947, and 100 One-Act Plays Recommended for Contest and Festival Use*. 1948. 48 pp. \$1.00.
- Report of Third Children's Theatre Conference*. 1948. Free.
- Selected Bibliography and Critical Comment on the Art, Theory, and Technique of Acting*. 1948. 32 pp. \$1.00.
- Syllabus for a Proposed Course in Dramatics at the High-School Level*. 1946. 33 pp. \$1.00.
- Publications of Bantam Books, 1223 Ledger Building, Philadelphia, Pa. 1948. Unabridged pocket editions.
- No. 158. *The Sign of the Ram* by Margaret Ferguson. 248 pp. The story of a woman who loved gaily and tenderly, ruled with diabolical intensity those around her. Filmed by Columbia under the same title with Susan Peters starring.

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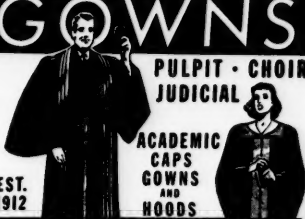
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SCHULTZ, H. A., and SHORES, J. H. *Art in the Elementary School*. Urbana, Ill.: Bureau of Research and Service, Univ. of Ill. 1948. 102 pp. Presents a broad approach to art education, emphasizing enjoyable satisfaction rather than artistic merit. Half the pages are devoted to activities for stimulating individual effort, group co-operation, and community projects. Many ideas are adaptable to high-school level.

SEGEL, DAVID. *Intellectual Abilities in the Adolescent Period* (Office of Education Bulletin 1948, No. 6). Wash. 25, D.C.: Supt. of Doc. 1948. 41 pp. A report based on special studies and psychological research, offering a comprehensive outline of the fundamental principles of mental abilities and traits of adolescents and giving implications for curriculum building and guidance.

A State Surveys Its Education. Chapel Hill, N. C.: Univ. of N. C. Press. 1948. (Nov.-Dec.) 48 pp. 25c. A report of a study of "educational problems to the end that a sound over-all education program may be developed in North Carolina," by the State Education Commission as appointed by the Governor and authorized by the State's General Assembly of 1947.

Teacher Guide to the Classroom Motion Picture. New York 18: Teaching Film Custodians, Inc., 25 W. 43rd St. 1948. A series of loose-leaf guides for use with experimental films produced by the Audio-Visual Committee on the National Council for the Social Studies in collaboration with the Motion Picture Assn. of America. Each guide sets forth the objectives, content, and historical background of the film with suggestions for research and questions for discussions. Films available: *Driven Westward*, *The House of Rothschild*, *The Crusades*, *Conquest*, *Marc Antony of Rome*, *Johnson and Reconstruction*, *Winning Our Independence*, *Drums Along the Mohawk*. Other types of films available with guide showing grade placement, pre-development, musical background, etc.: *What Is China?* *Osmosis*, *Borrowing in Subtraction*.

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- WISSEMAN, C. L. *Rules and Regulations for High-School Graduation in Texas*. Austin, Texas: Texas Study of Secondary Education. 1948. 35 pp. A co-operative study of graduation requirements in Texas schools suggested from the floor of the Texas Association of Secondary-School Principals. The findings do not suggest that requirements should be uniform; rather, that they should be governed by local needs; yet, that a greater standardization of the amount of work might be desirable.
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